THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES ON SERVICE QUALITY IN PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

Riaan Dirkse van Schalkwyk

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

Business Management

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISORS: Mrs A. Davis and Prof. R. Pellissier

November 2011

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. Higher education institutions and, more specifically, private higher education institutions, have faced increasing pressure on many fronts in recent years. These pressures include increased competition, lack of support from key constituencies, an increase in the size and diversity of the student population, dealing with changing technology, increased calls for accountability, a higher demand for quality by all the stakeholders involved, more responsibility for research and teaching and greater emphasis on efficient and effective management. The literature review for this study suggested that leadership impacts positively on quality and, equally important, on service quality. The academic leaders at these institutions have a tremendous influence on the quality of the education provided and the service rendered to the growing number of students. Using a quantitative methodology and a cross-sectional survey research design, this study was conducted on five campuses of a prominent private higher education provider across South Africa using two survey instruments. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) questionnaire was utilised to conduct the leadership survey while the SERVQUAL instrument was applied in the service quality survey. The campus principals of the five campuses and some of their selected subordinates completed the LPI survey. The SERVQUAL questionnaires were completed by 984 students from the five campuses. Correlation analysis was the major statistical tool used to analyse the data. The findings of the study indicated a strong positive linear correlation between the leadership practices of principals and service quality to students at these institutions.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CFA	- Confirmatory factor analysis
CHE	- Council on Higher Education
CK scale	- Conger-Kanungo scale
DoE	- Department of Education
EFQM	- European Foundation for Quality Management
EQA	- European Quality Award
FET	- Further Education and Training
GET	- General Education and Training
GTL	- Global Transformational Leadership scale
HE	- Higher education
HEdPERF	- Higher education performance only
HEQC	- Higher Education Quality Committee
HET	- Higher education and training
HWI	- Historically white institutions
ISO	- Organisation for International Standards
LAI	- Leader Assessment Inventory
LPI	- Leadership Practices Inventory
MBNQA	- Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
MLQ	- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

NCHE - National Commission on Higher Education

NQF - National Qualifications Framework

NSC - National Senior Certificate

PHE - Private higher education

SADC - Southern African Development Community

SAQA - South African Qualifications Authority

SARU - Southern African Universities Association

SERVQUAL - Service Quality Measurement Instrument

TLI - Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory

TLQ - Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

TQM - Total quality management

TQS - Total quality service

TVET - Technical and vocational education and training institutes

USA - United States of America

This study focuses on the impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education (PHE) in South Africa. A well-known brand of a prominent service provider in the field was selected for the study. The brand, as well as the service provider, will remain anonymous for the purpose of the study. To ensure confidentiality, the brand will be referred to as “The College”.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to those who assisted me with the compilation of this dissertation.

In particular, I would like to thank the following:

- My study leaders, Mrs A. Davis and Prof. R. Pellissier, for their enthusiasm, advice, assistance and guidance
- Dr Felicity Coughlan, for her willingness to share her experience and viewpoints with me
- My employer, for providing the opportunity and tools to conduct this study
- Prof. R.J. Steenkamp, for his encouragement, motivation and belief that I could accomplish this, in the midst of numerous pressures
- My family, Elouise, Hein and Elri, for all their support and understanding

DEDICATION

To my Lord and Saviour, all the honour and glory

To my wife, Elouise, for all her love, support and encouragement

To my children, Hein and Elri, for their love

To my parents, for their support

To the late Dr Charles Freysen, for his encouragement and contribution to private higher education in South Africa

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this dissertation, “The impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education in South Africa”, is my own work, and that all the sources I have used or cited have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

_____ _____

Riaan Dirkse van Schalkwyk November 2011

Table of Contents

APPENDICES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 1.1 below.

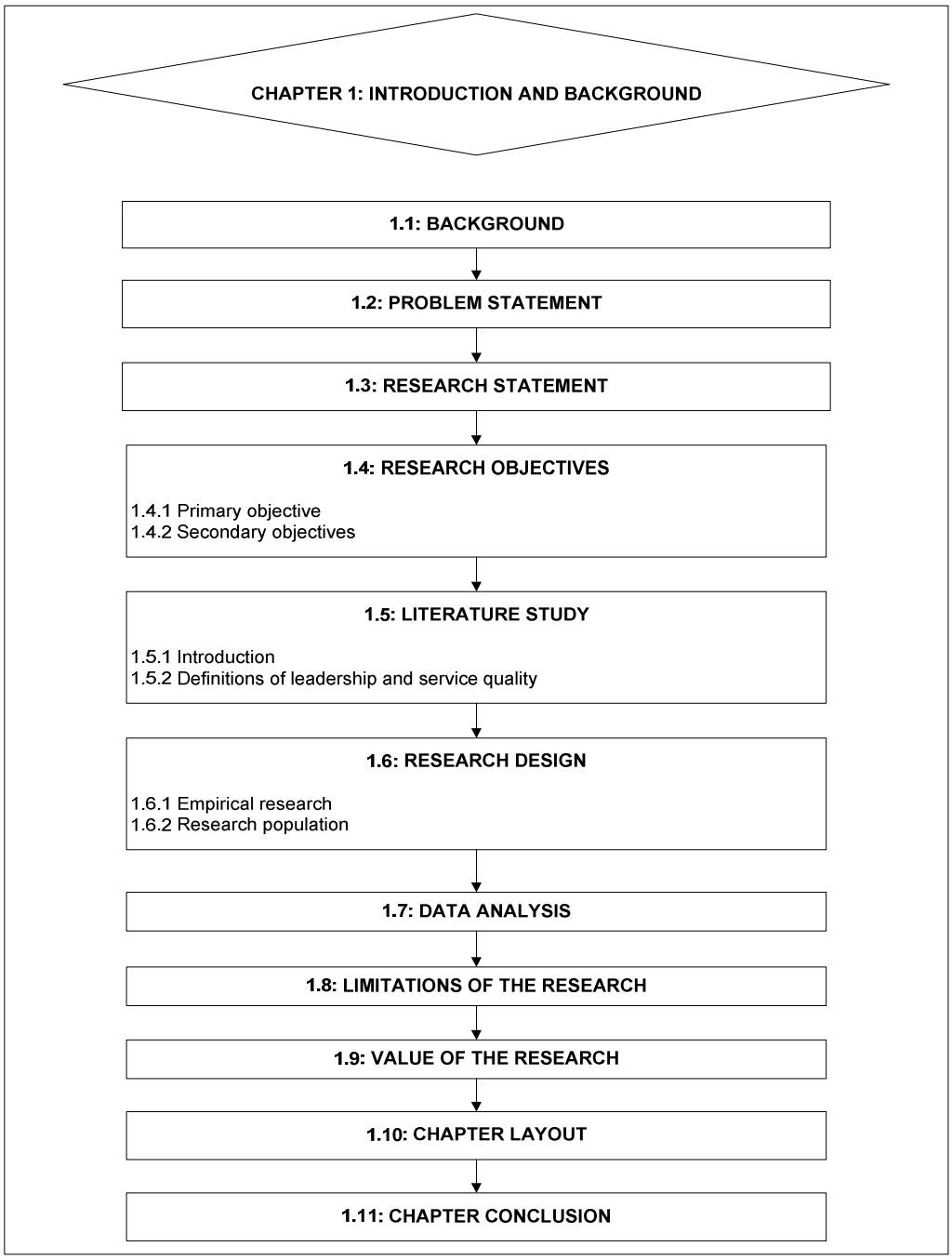

Figure 1.1: Layout of chapter 1

1.1 BACKGROUND

This study focuses on the impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education (PHE) in South Africa. “The College”, which is one of the four brands of a prominent service provider in the field, was selected as the focus of this study. The service provider is a PHE provider registered with the Department of Education (DoE) offering a full range of qualifications and short learning programmes on 19 sites of delivery, organised into four brands. Owing to the dynamic nature of the PHE environment in South Africa, providers specifically need to be leaders in their field to compete successfully in order to maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace.

Fendt and Varek (1992) identify four characteristics of PHE institutions. Firstly, in order to survive, PHE institutions require fundraising because of the lack of government subsidies. They need to maintain a warm, friendly and personal relationship with their students to ensure customer retention. Secondly, PHE institutions tend to be smaller, which means that students should feel important and cared for. This implies that there may be less bureaucracy in decision making, which gives these institutions the advantage of rapidly responding to the needs of the marketplace. Thirdly, PHE institutions are free of public monetary control and spending on tuition, and salaries are determined by the institution itself. Lastly, in the past, the only focus was on effective teaching. A new trend is emerging in the sense that PHE institutions are starting to feel the pressure and therefore have to conduct research and generate publications if they wish to be taken seriously as part of the HE sector.

With reference to the characteristics of PHE institutions, as indicated by Fendt and Varek (1992), certain competitive challenges arise in this environment. This provides a great opportunity for research projects focusing, among other things, on leadership and service quality.

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in South Africa consists of three streams of education and training, namely general education and training (GET), further education and training (FET) and higher education and training (HET). As stated previously, this study focuses on the higher education (HE) stream. Entry into HET is acquired via a Grade 12 certificate with or without exemption. All PHE institutions must register with the DoE in accordance with the HE Act 101 of 1997 (South Africa. Department of Education, 2009). Only private institutions that want to offer qualifications (certificates, diplomas or degrees) at NQF levels 5 to 10 are required to register with the DoE.

The purpose of registering private institutions offering HE, is to ensure that PHE institutions offer an acceptable quality of education and that students enrol at institutions that have the capacity and expertise to offer such programmes. In addition, being registered with and accredited by the DoE means that the institutions offer qualifications that are aligned with the NQF and as such contribute to transformation that is in line with government policy (South Africa. Department of Education, 2009).

The regulatory framework further dictates which institutions may apply for registration and the responsibilities of such an institution once it has been registered. An institution is eligible to apply for registration as a PHE provider if it is a registered company in accordance with the Companies Act 61 of 1973 and intends providing HE as contemplated in chapter 1 of the Act (South Africa. Department of Education, 2009). This basically means that the institution must provide functions such as registering students at a higher educational level and offering curricula, assessing students on learning programmes and awarding qualifications. An institution that applies for registration must also fulfil the requirements for quality assurance set out by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education (CHE). The CHE is the body responsible for quality assurance in HE, while the HEQC is responsible

for conducting institutional and programme assessment, which is known as accreditation.

One of the benefits of accreditation is a guarantee that the progammes offered by the institution are indeed HE. The institution must also provide evidence of its financial sustainability in terms of sureties. This is to prove that the institution is able to offer its programmes and meet its financial obligations to students. The institution must also comply with health and safety regulations.

The responsibilities of a registered institution are stipulated in chapter 6 of the Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, published in Government Gazette, No. 24124, dated 13 December 2002. A summary of these responsibilities is provided below (South Africa. Department of Education, 2009:7).

i. Maintaining registration through continuing to comply with the requirements of the Act and the conditions of registration.
ii. Reporting any changes in information submitted to the registrar.
iii. Reporting loss of any physical facility, supporting service that may have consequences for the provision of programmes.
iv. Displaying the registration certificate conspicuously on the premises.
v. Publishing at least once a year a prospectus, calendar or brochure. Amongst other things, the prospectus must feature information on the managers of the institution, its academic staff, admission requirements and procedures, rules relating to assessment and academic credit accumulation and progression, fees and charges, student support services and student financial aid.
vi. Keeping a comprehensive record of the academic achievement of each student enrolled.
vii. Making available transcripts of academic records and certificates on request.

viii. Ensuring accurate advertising and making no false, fraudulent or misleading statements.

ix. Submitting to the registrar an annual report on or before 30 April of each year; and

x. On cancellation of registration, informing students, issuing students with copies of records of academic achievements, reimbursing students and making arrangements for them to complete their studies at comparable public or private institutions.

The then Minister of Education, Mrs. Naledi Pandor indicated that South Africa has a shortage of educational leadership (Niemann & Kotze, 2006: 609). According to her, current leaders cannot formulate strategic plans or formulate perspectives that will lead to success. This study also complements the strategic plan of the DoE for 2007 to 2011 as is evident from the vision and mission of the DoE. The mission reads as follows: “Our mission is to provide leadership in the establishment of a South African education system for the 21st century.” The vision is as follows: “Striving to address the training needs for high-quality service and seeking ways to achieve our goals” (South Africa. Department of Education, [s.a.]:9). Linked to the DoE’s vision of providing leadership and vision of high-quality service, Kouzes and Posner (2007) state that exemplary leadership occurs when a leader gets extraordinary things done. This is achieved by engaging in the following leadership practices: modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart. These practices form the basis of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) assessment instrument that was used in this study, as discussed in section 1.5.2.4. McKenna (2003) argues that to execute successful service strategies one needs leaders and not managers, and that leadership is the key to success. Hui, Chiu, Yu, Cheng and Tse (2007) support this view, and state that when an organisation is not rendering quality service, leadership behaviour makes a significant difference. Where service quality is poor, leadership behaviour plays a key role in maintaining service excellence to external customers.

In the South African PHE environment, the Register of PHE Institutions of 2010 indicates that there are currently 78 PHE institutions registered with the DoE in South Africa. At that time there were also 22 provisionally registered providers and four providers with an extension on provisional registration. In total, there are 104 role players in the PHE market, all competing for the same market share with new (local and international) stakeholders entering the market despite the relatively high barriers to entry such as cost and regulations.

In addition to the competitive forces in the PHE environment, the educational regulatory environment also poses challenges for PHE providers. The new National Senior Certificate (NSC) affords school leavers the opportunity to enrol at a public university that would not have been possible in the past owing to stricter entry requirements. The implication for the PHE sector is that it is losing a huge part of its market to public providers. There is still a perception in South Africa that public universities offer higher quality education and service than the private sector. Previously, private providers competed with one another to win clients (students). Now, the competition is not restricted to the private sector alone, but institutions also have to compete directly with public providers. Exceptional service quality could offer PHE providers a competitive advantage.

Service quality is also linked to increased profits and is essential to maintain a competitive advantage. Abdullah (2005) confirms that HE has been compelled towards commercial competition and that these institutions should not only be concerned with the abilities and skills of their graduates, but also the way in which the students perceive their educational experience.

It is evident from the above that the PHE environment is not only highly regulated, but also highly competitive and takes into account the number of role players involved. It is

now more imperative than ever for private institutions to offer superior services and products to students if they wish to remain competitive. This is in line with the Higher Education Act 101 of 1999, which states that no PHE provider may offer HE unless it is registered with the DoE.

It has become crucial for PHE institutions to revisit their mission statements and "practise what they preach" – a balance between the financial perspective and client (service quality) perspective should become part of the business model. The focus should shift from a moneymaking approach to a balance between sound business practices and service quality. As indicated previously by Pandor (Niemann & Kotze, 2006), there is a shortage of educational leadership, and exemplary leadership should be the way to address this focus shift. Similarly, according to Dauffenbach (1995), effective leadership is needed for institutions to excel and motivate employees to put in the extra effort. Without effective leadership, no HE institution will be continuously successful.

Given the scenario in the PHE environment in South Africa, several challenges such as sustainability and long-term competitive advantage, as well relatively high barriers to entry, have been identified. The following section describes one specific problem that was investigated in this research study.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

One of the challenges facing PHE institutions is an increasingly competitive, marketing-oriented and highly regulated environment. In this environment, these institutions have to function, survive and compete, not only with one another, but also with HE public institutions. Hence the problem is that competition is on the increase and PHE institutions need to find new ways to compete if they wish to survive in this dynamic

environment. As indicated previously, leadership appears to influence service quality, which is essential in gaining a competitive edge in this ever-evolving environment.

1.3 RESEARCH STATEMENT

Proven leadership practices will have a positive impact on service quality in a PHE institution in South Africa. This will thus impact on the competitive advantage which, in turn, will then lead to the long-term sustainability of the institution.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. Hence the impact of leadership (the independent variable) on service quality (the dependent variable) will be investigated.

1.4.2 Secondary objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were formulated for this study:

(1) To identify service quality criteria used to evaluate the quality of service
(2) To identify a leadership assessment instrument that measures leadership practices
(3) To analyse students' perceptions and expectations of service quality
(4) To evaluate the way in which leaders view themselves in terms of exemplary leadership
(5) To evaluate the way in which the organisation views its leader in terms of exemplary leadership

(6) To recommend interventions to improve leadership and service quality in a PHE provider in South Africa

The next section deals with the literature study on leadership and service quality.

1.5 LITERATURE STUDY

1.5.1 Introduction

The aim of the literature study was to report on existing knowledge on the constructs *leadership* and *service quality*, and to understand the relationship between these constructs. The literature study would also promote a better understanding of the PHE environment which was the context in which the study would be conducted.

The need for educational leadership and service quality (as part of the DOE's vision) was emphasised earlier in this discussion. The next section will focus on the literature consulted on leadership and service quality as well as the relevant instruments that would be used to conduct the study.

Many experts agree that leadership is the key to improving quality. According to Fendt and Varek (1992), the components of a total quality service include leadership, a quality management system, quality management processes, education and training and a strategy for implementation. They believe that of these five components, leadership is the driving force behind service quality and it should come from the top. Foster (2010) confirms this by indicating that quality experts such as Deming, Juran, Crosby, Taguchi, Ishikawa and Feigenbaum all agree that certain variables form the core of quality management. One of these core variables is leadership. Goetsch and Davis (2006) report that Juran's quality trilogy comprises planning, control and continuous improvement. However, these three functions do not occur automatically but are driven by leadership.

As stated earlier, the PHE environment in South Africa is highly competitive. There are numerous role players trying to secure a share of the market. Robbins and DeCenzo (2008) argue that the more an organisation can satisfy its customers' needs for quality and build up a loyal customer base, the more it can differentiate itself from its competition. Constant improvement in the quality of services can lead to a competitive advantage that other organisations cannot emulate. Linked to this is Foster's (2010) contention that organisations with weak leadership will not gain a market advantage in quality.

Zahorik and Keiningham (Ham & Hayduk, 2003) emphasise service quality as an investment that is required to remain competitive in the global market. According to Wang, Lo and Yang (2004), customer perceived service quality is one of the principal success factors of sustained competitive advantage for both manufacturers and service providers. Voon (2006) agrees and adds that there has been an increase in the internationalisation of the labour market, lecturers, researchers, students and competitive education programmes. HE policy makers need to adopt a formal approach that will ensure quality products and services. He confirms that service quality is important to HE institutions for a number of reasons, including competitive advantages and meeting the ever-increasing public expectations.

A review of the literature indicated that there are various definitions of leadership and service quality, which will be discussed in the next section.

1.5.2 Definitions of leadership and service quality

1.5.2.1 Leadership

Batten (1989:35) defines leadership as "a clear and complete system of expectations in order to identify, evoke, and use the strengths of all resources in the organisation – the most important of which is people". Staub (1997:160) adds to this by stating that "leadership is, by definition, the capacity to forge ahead, blaze new trails, open up new

realms. It is characterised by breaking with tradition and seizing new opportunities where others see only danger and ruin." Co *et al*. (2006:203) focus on the behavioural side of leadership and define it as "the ability to influence the behaviour of others so that they can cooperate willingly to reach goals". Moreover, according to Goetsch and Davis (2006:255), "leadership is the ability to inspire people to make a total, willing, and voluntary commitment to accomplishing or exceeding organisational goals". In addition, Hellriegel *et al*. (2006:286) explain that leadership "involves influencing others to act towards the attainment of a goal. It is based on interpersonal relationships, not administrative activities and directives."

According to Marden (2007:333), leadership is a process, which means "that it is a dynamic interaction or transactional event that occurs between the leader and his or her followers. The leader affects and is affected by the followers." He further states that leadership occurs in a group context and that "leadership involves influencing a group of individuals who are in some way inter-related or interacting in a purposive manner". He adds that leadership is also goal-oriented and that "it involves influencing the individual and the group towards accomplishing some objective or task".

Despite the plethora of definitions of leadership, some authors such as Doh and Stumpf (2005) contend that the ultimate question is not what the definition of leadership is, but rather what constitutes good leadership. They add that there is no confusion about what leaders do - the question is, what would be the best way to do it. After all, that is the point of studying leadership.

With due consideration of the multitude of definitions, for the purpose of this study, leadership was defined as "the mobilisation and influencing of people to work towards a common goal through the building of interpersonal relationships and the breaking of tradition to achieve the organisation's objectives despite risk and uncertainty".

The link between the definition of leadership and the LPI assessment instrument is evident and will be discussed in section 1.5.2.4.

As stated previously, the focus of this study was on the impact of leadership practices on service quality. The next section investigates the definitions of service quality.

1.5.2.2 Service quality

Stamatis (1996:6) provides a useful summary of the definitions of quality by the gurus of quality management over the years:

- conformance to requirements (Crosby 1979)
- fitness for use (Juran 1979)
- continual improvement (Deming 1982)
- as defined by customers (Ford 1984, 1990).

Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990:18) define service quality as “meeting or exceeding what customers expect from the service”. Asubonteng, McClearly and Swan (1996:64) refer to service quality “as the difference between customers’ expectations for service performance prior to the service encounter and their perceptions of the service received”. Palmer (1998:153) adds to the above and defines service quality as “the extent to which a service meets customers’ requirements” and “the extent to which perceived service delivery matches up to those individual expectations”. Markovic (2006:88) also focuses on expectations and reports that service quality “is a measure of the extent to which the service delivered meets the customers’ expectations.” Khoshafian (2007:312) adopts a different approach and states that service quality “is always associated with the reliability and performance of the service”.

Because this study would investigate service quality for PHE, it is necessary to define service quality in HE. O'Neill and Palmer (in Voss, Gruber & Szmigin 2007: 950) define service quality in HE as “the difference between what a student expects to receive and his/her perceptions of actual delivery”.

For the purpose of this study, and following on the above-mentioned definitions, service quality in HE was defined as “meeting and exceeding students’ expectations and perceptions by constantly rendering a reliable service that conforms to pre-determined requirements”.

A clear link exists between this definition of service quality and the SERVQUAL instrument which will be discussed below. The next section describes the two research instruments that were used in this study, namely SERVQUAL and the LPI.

1.5.2.3 SERVQUAL

The SERVQUAL instrument was developed by Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry in 1988. It is an instrument for assessing quality along five service dimensions (*tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy).* Many organisations use this instrument because it is an off-the-shelf approach that can be used in a variety of service settings (Foster, 2007). It has two parts – customer (student) expectations and customer (student) perceptions. Zeithaml *et al*. (1990) define the five dimensions as follows:

- **tangibles -** physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials
- **reliability -** the ability to perform service dependably and accurately
- **responsiveness -** the willingness to help students and provide prompt service
- **assurance -** the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence
- **empathy –** the organisation provides care and individualised attention to its students

According to Foster (2010), SERVQUAL identifies five discrepancies or "gaps" that may cause problems in service delivery and therefore influence customer evaluations of service quality.

- gap 1: the gap between customer expectations and management's perception of these expectations
- gap 2: the gap between management's perception of what customers want and the specifications that management develop to provide the service
- gap 3: the gap between the service quality specifications (delivery systems) and the service that is actually provided
- gap 4: the gap between what the service system actually provided, and what the customer is told it provides (a communication gap)
- gap 5: the gap between customers' perceptions of service performance and their expectations

For the purpose of this study, the following serves as an example to indicate the gaps that may be identified through SERVQUAL: If students have higher expectations for tangibles than for reliability, and they perceive tangibles as poor, then a large gap exists between the expected and delivered performance on tangibility. Given that this gap is larger, increasing customer (student) satisfaction lies in addressing tangibles first.

The SERVQUAL survey has two parts, namely customer expectations and customer perceptions. Figure 1.2 below depicts the service quality gaps of SERVQUAL.

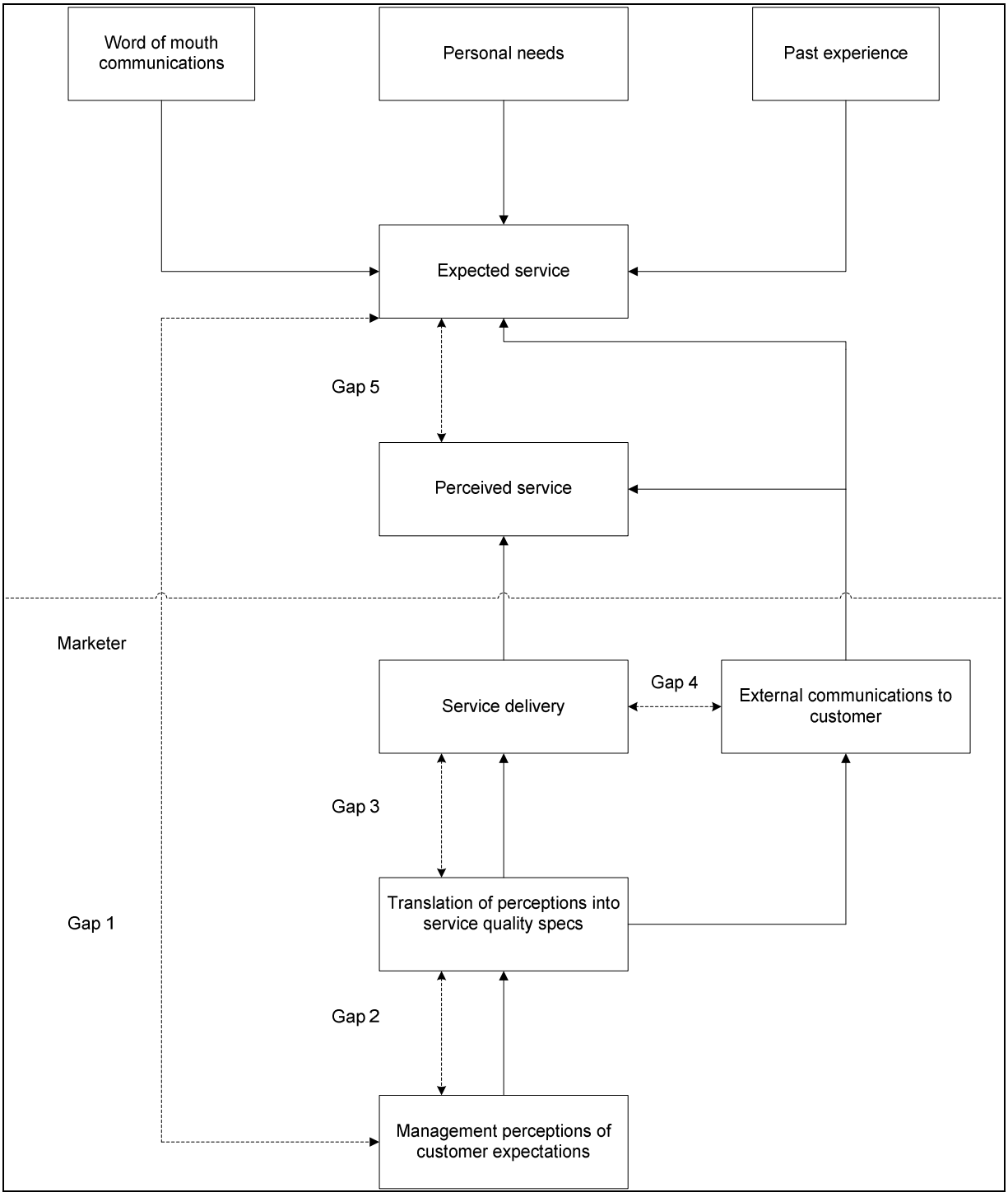

Figure 1.2: Gaps and the service quality model

(Source: Foster, 2010:165)

In evaluating the SERVQUAL instrument, the following potential drawbacks are considered:

According to Kim, Lee and Yun (2004), many researchers have criticised the SERQUAL model and argued that the score can lead to psychometric problems such as variance restrictions by having given variables in a gap-based model. Lee (2005) mentions that the SERVQUAL instrument has been adopted for many studies in services research but also that the instrument has been questioned. In support of Lee's statement, Bicheno and Catherwood (2005) point out that research has shown that the SERVQUAL dimensions and weightings do not necessarily apply to all cultures in the world. Bienstock, Mentzer and Bird (Bicheno & Catherwood, 2005) suggest that dimensions such as timelines, availability and condition are absent from the instrument. Carmen (Swart, 2006) criticises the instrument for the use of different scores, dimensionality and the lack of validity in terms of the five dimensions.

Despite the instrument's drawbacks, the following advantages are presented:

Foster (2010) lists a number of advantages of using the SERVQUAL instrument. He indicates that it is accepted as a standard for assessing different dimensions of service quality and it has been shown to be valid for a number of service institutions. Equally important, he adds that it has been shown to be reliable and has only 22 items which can be filled out quickly by the respondents. He concludes summary by pointing out that it has a standardised analysis procedure to aid in the interpretation of results.

A review of the literature indicates that SERQUAL, although an "older" instrument, is still reliable for measuring service quality. Carrillat, Jaramillo and Mulki (2007) confirm this by stating that SERVQUAL and SERVPERF are equally reliable instruments in assessing service quality. SERVPERF is an alternative service quality measurement instrument and will be discussed in more detail in chapter 3, section 3.7.7, of this study.

The SERVQUAL instrument was chosen for this study on the basis of the above advantages as well as research conducted by many authors that confirms the validity and authenticity of the instrument. The 22 items can be customised for any organisation and are widely published in academic textbooks (e.g. Foster, 2010; Gryna, Chua & DeFeo, 2007) as a valid and reliable method to assess service quality. SERVQUAL is especially appropriate for a study in HE. Hughey, Chawla and Khan (2003) provide further evidence of the validity of SERVQUAL in an HE institution. They mention that a longitudinal application of a SERVQUAL survey (over two years) to measure services provided by computer labs in a Southwest state university showed remarkable consistency. Markovic (2006) concurs and posits that SERVQUAL is a suitable instrument for HE institutions to design service strategies that will meet students' expectations in relation to service quality.

As mentioned in the problem statement, this study focused on a PHE provider. Baxter (2004) contends that SERVQUAL is also extremely valuable in an environment in which the focus is on income, business needs and value for money.

According to Mukherjee and Nath (2005), the SERVQUAL instrument is best suited to measure the current performance of a service organisation by identifying the delivery gaps. Cronin and Taylor (Mukherjee & Nath, 2005) propose that the SERVPERF approach, which is performance based, is superior to the SERVQUAL gap method. However, Parasuraman *et al.* (Mukherjee & Nath, 2005) provide evidence that the SERVQUAL model is superior to other models, both theoretically and empirically. Badri, Abdulla and Al-Madani (2005) confirm that the SERVQUAL model has been used and tested in many service industries, including education. Despite all the criticisms of the model, the developers contend that using a gap-based model is a much richer approach to measuring service quality. They add that service quality is a multidimensional as opposed to a unidimensional construct.

Despite its many criticisms, SERVQUAL is still a popular instrument for measuring service quality in service organisations. According to the developers of the SERVQUAL

model, it is still recommended because of its superior diagnostic capacity (Kim *et al*., 2004).

Barnes (2007) concurs with the above statements and provides evidence that SERVQUAL is a tried-and-tested instrument that has been successfully applied in various service industries and that its strengths more than outweigh its weaknesses. Barnes (2007) further stipulates that SERVQUAL is a useful instrument for studying service quality and is can also be applied as a postgraduate research tool. Recently, the SERVQUAL instrument was used as part of the University of Houston's improvement effort and it provided useful data on service gaps to improve service quality (Quinn, Lemay, Larsen & Johnson, 2009).

The previous section discussed the drawbacks and potential advantages of SERVQUAL as a research instrument. Since the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, SERVQUAL was deemed to be the most appropriate instrument for this study.

1.5.2.4 The LPI

As indicated earlier, there are numerous definitions of leadership as well as leadership assessment tools. According to Conger and Riggo (2007), the leadership assessment tools include interviews, assessment centres, cognitive ability tests and personality inventories. However, a review of all the instruments is beyond the scope of this research.

The following leadership assessment tools were investigated as possible instruments for this study:

(1) Innovative Leadership Assessment (http://www.chartcourse.com/articleassess.htm)
(2) Leadership Self-Assessment (http://www.nsba.org/sbot/toolkit/leadSA.html)
(3) Leadership Skills Assessment Questionnaire (http://www.optimalthinking.com/leader-assessment.asp)

(4) The Leadership Motivation Assessment
(http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_01.htm)
(5) Leadership Self-Assessment Activity
(http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/survlead.html)

It was found that all of the above instruments are based on self-assessment only and there is little evidence to prove their reliability and validity.

According to Conger and Riggo (2007), the value of a leadership assessment tool lies in its economic value, whether or not standards were followed in its development and whether it has construct validity. It can be argued that the above instruments are inadequate tools for leadership assessment.

By contrast, Kouzes and Posner (2003b) report that the LPI has proven to be both reliable and valid on the basis of more than 25 years of research and the fact that more than 200 academic studies and master's dissertations used the LPI as a research instrument. Kouzes and Posner (2003b:17) assert the following: "For an instrument to be used in an academic environment, it must meet certain psychometric tests that internally developed competency surveys do not always have to meet. Academic institutions are very rigorous in the criteria they use to determine whether or not an instrument passes these tests. The knowledge that the LPI is considered valid and reliable by these standards should give confidence to all those who use the LPI in their work that they can count on the LPI feedback. Furthermore, LPI gives 360-degree feedback on leadership behaviour. Feedback is essential because leadership is a relationship.

The concept of leadership was highlighted earlier. A definition for leadership was formulated with leadership behaviour as one of its core components. According to Hough and Neuland (2007), leaders work with people and the globalisation of business has a significant effect on the behavioural side of leading an organisation.

Kouzes and Posner developed the LPI, based on 25 years of research and data from over three million leaders across the globe. The instrument measures leadership on the basis of “five practices of exemplary leadership” (Kouzes & Posner, 2007:14). It reveals the leader’s behaviour in terms of *challenging the process; inspiring a shared vision; enabling others to act; modelling the way; and encouraging the heart.* The LPI consists of 30 items requesting constituents (college employees) to rate the leader’s (principal’s) abilities on a ten-point rating scale. It indicates how frequently leaders engage in the five practices. The LPI is one of the most widely used leadership assessment instruments in the world today (Kouzes & Posner, [s.a.]).The LPI is a 360-degree measurement instrument as well as an instrument to improve and teach successful leadership behaviour and can be applied in the PHE environment. “Leadership is everybody’s business” is the foundation of the LPI. It is behaviour that can be taught and learnt. Research conducted by Professors Kouzes and Posner has proven that managers, principals, government administrators and other leaders who use the five practices of exemplary leadership are seen by others as more effective leaders. For example (Kouzes & Posner, 2007:343):

- They are more effective in meeting job-related demands.
- They are more successful in representing their units to upper management.
- They create higher performing teams.
- They foster renewed loyalty and commitment.
- They provide higher levels of involvement.
- They reduce absenteeism, turnover and drop-out rates.
- They possess high degrees of personal credibility.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), the constituents of leaders who engage in the five practices are more productive, they accept and embrace the strategies of these leaders and they are more committed to the organisation and the leader. Plowman (1991) reports that higher LPI scores are linked to higher organisational effectiveness. Hyatt (2007) concurs with this and states that Kouzes and Posner’s leadership practices

should guide leaders in order to improve organisational effectiveness. An organisation's performance could suffer if its leaders do not embrace the five practices of exemplary leadership. In addition, Holt (2003) confirms that the LPI identifies strengths and weaknesses and leaders can focus on those elements that are essential for systematic change – this will result in an overall improved campus climate. According to Roi (2006), there is a significant relationship between the five practices and positive financial results. He argues that organisations that engage in the five leadership practices are more frequently associated with long-term income growth. The LPI provides information on how the leader rates himself or herself and how others rate the leader on these behaviours. It does not evaluate IQ, leadership style, management style or personality. Accordingly, there is no such thing as a "bad" or "good" score. Because these are not "grades". The results indicate opportunities to focus on areas in which leadership behaviour is lacking, to improve on these and to become more skilful as a leader (Kouzes & Posner, [s.a]).

Table 1.1 summarises the five practices and ten commitments of exemplary leadership on which the LPI is based.

Table 1.1:The five practices and ten commitments of leadership

Practice	Commitment
Model the way	1. Clarify values by finding your voice and affirming shared ideas.
	2. Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
Inspire a shared vision	3. Envision the future by imagining exciting and enobling possibilities.
	4. Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their shared aspirations.
Challenge the process	5. Search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and looking outward for ways to improve.
	6. Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience.

Enable others to act	7. Foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships. 8. Strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence.
Encourage the heart	9. Recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. 10. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

(Source: Kouzes & Posner, 2007:26)

The following section focuses on the research design applied in this study.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) state that the research design is the general plan for a research study. It contains clear objectives, the reasons why a particular organisation was chosen for the research, identifies sources from which data will be collected and discusses the research limitations.

1.6.1 Empirical research

The two constructs investigated in this study were service quality and leadership. As such, the two instruments were used on two different populations. The next section describes the primary data collection process.

In the same way as the campuses are concerned about the quality of their relationships with their students, the best leaders should seek feedback – positive and negative – on how they are doing with their constituents. Leaders (principals) have multiple constituents including managers, co-workers and direct reports. Only by grasping all of these different perspectives can they learn to fully appreciate how they are seen from all angles and points of view. With data from multiple perspectives they can see where there is consistency and inconsistency in and agreement and disagreement about their

strengths and weaknesses. Using this information, they can then determine what and how to improve. To this end, the researcher decided to use the LPI survey.

All the questionnaires were distributed to the five campuses of “The College” and completed by means of an online survey system. This system had been used by the service provider as part of its national customer survey during the second semester of 2008 and had proven to be a highly efficient platform for administering survey questionnaires.

The exceptionally high return rate can be attributed to the user-friendliness of the online survey system and the fact that calls for participation in such surveys made from the service provider as a regulatory body are usually perceived in a positive light. This positive sentiment combined with the use of the online survey system and the scope (the sample size for this study was 984 compared to the service provider’s more than 3 000 completed and usable questionnaires) and timing (August 2009 – February 2010) of the data collection, paved the way for a high return rate.

For the SERVQUAL survey, the research population consisted of “The College’s” five sites of delivery in Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The campuses are situated in Pretoria, Benoni, Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban.

In order to optimise feedback, the participants should have had sufficient exposure to provide meaningful feedback on their expectations and perceptions of the quality of their student experience at “The College”. First-year students (enrolled at “The College” for longer than six months) and second-year students participated. The respondents were not limited to business faculty students only, but included students from all the faculties, in an effort to prevent distorted results in terms of quality expectations and perceptions (all students have expectations/perceptions of quality, not only the students in the business faculty). As indicated in the previous section, the questionnaires were distributed electronically to the campuses via the online survey system for students to complete. An agreement was reached with “The College’s” management that students

would be permitted to complete the questionnaire during a class session. Computer laboratory time is scheduled for all qualifications offered at “The College”, both for first- and second-year students. Lecturers in the computer laboratory would facilitate a session guiding the students through the completion of the online SERVQUAL questionnaire. Once the questionnaire had been completed, it was stored on the server at the campus and sent back to the service provider for interpretation and analysis. The study was completed during the period, August 2009 to February 2010 (see table 1.2 for an explanation of the sampling method).

Leaders, in this instance, “The College’s” campus principals, completed the “LPI self”. This instrument requires leaders to rate themselves on the frequency with which they think they engage in each of the 30 behaviours (items). Seven staff members (who may be selected by the leader) as well as the leader’s manager complete the “LPI observer” questionnaire, rating their leader on the frequency with which they think they (the principals) engage in each of the 30 behaviours. The respondents can indicate their relationship to the leader as manager, co-worker, direct report or other observer. All the observers’ feedback was anonymous except for the leaders’ manager.

As in the case of the SERVQUAL questionnaire, all the questionnaires were distributed to the campuses electronically via the online survey system from the service provider’s head office – five “LPI self” questionnaires (one for each principal) and 40 “LPI other” questionnaires (seven constituents and one manager per principal). The questionnaires were also completed electronically on each campus and sent back to the service provider’s head office. All five campuses confirmed their cooperation in participating in the LPI questionnaire. The study was conducted concurrently with the SERVQUAL study and completed during the period from August 2009 to February 2010.

Both instruments (the questionnaires for SERVQUAL and the LPI) were pretested on respondents who fitted the profile of both “The College’s” students and principals. This was done to ensure that both instruments were understandable, which would increase the reliability of the data collected.

1.6.2 Research population

As stated earlier, the service provider is a PHE provider comprising four business-related HE brands (trading divisions). The scope of this study was focused on one of the brands referred to as “The College”.

“The College” has five sites of delivery in three provinces – Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, with a total student population of approximately 5 000. This afforded the researcher an opportunity to gain a representative view of student experiences in the country and not merely in a specific region.

“The College’s” specific market is largely influenced by government legislation - hence the need for such a study to contribute to the survival of “the College”. The selection of “The College” over any of the other brands was based on various factors. The compelling case for the inclusion of “The College” in this study included but was not limited to the following:

- “The College’s” student profile is aligned with other PHE institutions (second language, previously disadvantaged students).
- “The College’s” national footprint as described in the previous section.
- “The College” has the largest number of students of all the service provider’s brands in excess of 5 000 students.
- The CEO of “The College” welcomed this study and felt that it would add value in the long term.

Table 1.2 indicates the method of proportional stratified sampling that was used to select the target population (ideal number of participants) to participate in the survey. According to Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins and Van Wyk (2003:353), the stratified sampling method implies that the population is divided into subgroups (strata) and random samples are then drawn from each subgroup. For the purpose of this study, the

population was segmented according to campuses across South Africa. Each stratum was in proportion to its size in the overall population, that is, 5 085 students.

Table 1.2: Proportional stratified sampling

Proportional stratified sampling of 984 students (student numbers based on 2009 registrations)

Population segments	**Population size – Students (N)**	**Sample size (n)**	**Calculation**
Campus 1	415	80	984 x 415 / 5 085
Campus 2	1 604	310	984 x 1 604 / 5 085
Campus 3	1 916	371	984 x 1 916 / 5 085
Campus 4	726	141	984 x 726 / 5085
Campus 5	424	82	984 x 424 / 5085
Total	**5 085**	**984**	

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Since a random sample was drawn, the data were analysed by means of correlation analysis.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The principals involved in the study may have felt uncomfortable about being scrutinised by their constituents and they could well have chosen constituents with whom they had a good relationship, to participate in the “LPI observer” survey. Staff-turnover could have been another limitation. There was also the possibility of a principal being newly

appointed or leaving prior to the completion of the study, which would have impacted on the study. Owing to operational constraints, it was decided that first-year students would also participate in the SERVQUAL survey. It was thus possible that these students would not yet have a clear perception of service quality at the campus. In addition, the SERVQUAL questionnaire was completed as part of a class exercise. Students may have completed it as quickly as possible and not given their true opinions of service quality. This risk could have been avoided by not permitting students to leave the classroom before the designated class time had expired. Another method would have been for the lecturers to engage students and assist them with questions pertaining to the questionnaire. The researcher was of the opinion that these interventions would not hamper the objectivity of the student in completing the questionnaire. The study focused on “The College” only and not on other brands of the service provider or other PHE institutions. The data that were collected would represent a “snapshot” and not a trend, that is, only the “depth” of data and not the “width” would be obtained. This would provide a solid foundation for further research.

1.9 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

This study could well be the first of its kind in PHE in South Africa, and the researcher felt that the study would add value to the college on which the study was based in terms of leadership development in the long term and improving the level of quality of services offered to students. The LPI evaluation provides the basis for leadership development and can become a continuous process in “The College” and thus also be applied to other PHE institutions or even other service industries. According to Niemann and Kotze (2006:623), if selection committees knew what leadership traits to look for when appointing principals, this would foster a culture of teaching and learning and investing in the future of education. Owing to the highly competitive nature of PHE, it is imperative that providers offer a top-quality service to students if they wish to remain competitive. This is confirmed by Abdullah (2005) who contends that service quality is also linked to increased profits and is essential for maintaining a competitive advantage.

No academic work was found that focused on the relationship between leadership and service quality in HE, and more specifically, PHE. This study could therefore be the only attempt to report on the impact of leadership practices or behaviour on service quality in the PHE environment.

1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

Chapter 1 provided a brief overview of the background to the study, the problem statement and research statement, followed by a discussion of the primary and secondary research objectives, the research method and the definition of terms used in the study.

Chapter 2: The PHE environment in South Africa

Chapter 2 forms part of the literature review focusing on the PHE environment in South Africa. PHE practices in other countries will also be considered and compared with the practices in South Africa.

Chapter 3: Service quality

Chapter 3 forms part of the literature review focusing on service quality. Definitions and previous research in terms service quality will be investigated. The chapter will also provide an in-depth overview of the adapted SERVQUAL instrument that was used to conduct the study as well as alternative service quality measuring instruments. The importance of service quality and the five dimensions of service quality will also be discussed.

Chapter 4: Leadership

Chapter 4 forms part of the literature review focusing on leadership and leadership practices. Definitions and previous research in terms of leadership will be investigated. The chapter will also provide an in-depth overview of the LPI instrument that was used

to conduct the study as well as alternative leadership assessment instruments. The importance of leadership and its impact on service quality will also be discussed. The five practices of exemplary leadership will be investigated.

Chapter 5: Research design

Chapter 5 will describe the research design, including the research strategy adopted, data collection method, data analysis, research quality and delimitations and research ethics.

Chapter 6: Findings

Chapter 6 will discuss the analysis of the collected data.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 7 will provide a concluding overview on the relationship between leadership and service quality experiences in a PHE provider. The findings in chapter 6 will be discussed in relation to the research objectives, and the shortcomings and recommendations for further research will also be presented.

1.11 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter served as an introduction to the study. The first four sections included a description of the background to the study, the problem and research statements as well as the research objectives. This was followed by a brief discussion of the literature study, research design and the data analysis. It included definitions of leadership and service quality as well as an explanation of the empirical research process and research population. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the limitations and value of the research. The chapter layout of the whole study was also briefly indicated.

Chapter 2 will introduce the PHE environment which formed the background against which the study was conducted.

CHAPTER 2: THE PHE ENVIRONMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 indicated that the primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in the HE environment in South Africa, and more specifically, the PHE environment.

In support of this objective, the purpose of this chapter is threefold: (1) to present a brief report on PHE in selected developed and developing countries, (2) to introduce the HE environment in South Africa, and (3) to provide an overview of the PHE environment in South Africa, past and present, as the background to this study. Since this chapter provides the context for this study, it should be emphasised that only an overview of the PHE environment is provided so as not to deviate from the main purpose of the study. The main themes of this chapter are depicted in figure 2.1 below.

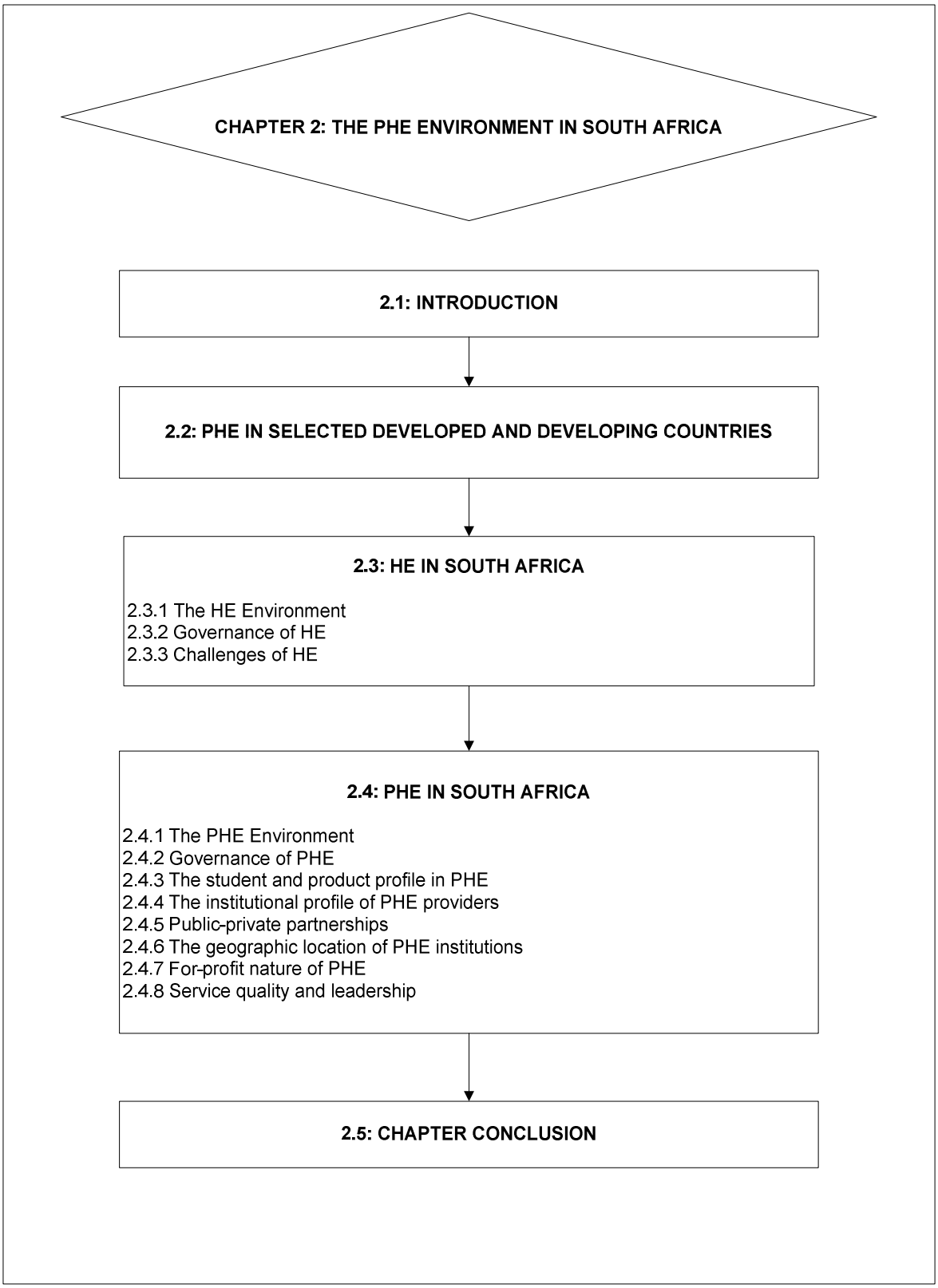

Figure 2.1: Layout of chapter 2

2.2 PHE IN SELECTED DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The PHE sector is growing worldwide, especially in countries where it was previously nonexistent. In some countries such as the USA, Japan, Mexico and Brazil, PHE has a long history. It is often well developed in these countries and sometimes perceived to be superior to public institutions. In countries such as Japan and Brazil, more than 80% of the enrolments in HE are in the PHE sector (Asmal, 2002).

There are also growing numbers in PHE enrolments in countries such as China, Malaysia, the Philippines, Ukraine and India. By contrast, in some countries such as Germany, Greece, Canada and Australia, the HE sector is dominated by public institutions and PHE providers are almost nonexistent. HE systems in developing countries tend to be more privatised than those in developed countries. In some developed countries, enrolments in public HE are as high as 90 to 95% of all enrolments. However, the growth rate of PHE in other countries is so high that there is a possibility that it could eventually replace the public HE system in the near future. PHE is ideal for two reasons: (1) governments do not always have the necessary resources to fund HE; and (2) PHE promotes competition and thus improves the HE system as a whole. The rate at which PHE is growing is indeed amazing (Tilak, 2006).

Worldwide, these institutions provide products that serve the three stakeholders in a PHE institution – consumers, clients and owners. PHE institutions operate like businesses and apply the fundamentals of business management in their day-to-day activities. They are regarded as entrepreneurial and can be found in all societies of the world. It is interesting to note that as far back as 1918 it was predicted that universities would eventually evolve from a philanthropic state to a focus on profit and entrepreneurship (Tilak, 2006).

In conclusion, according to Levy (2002), South Africa is not a world leader in terms of PHE, but it is near the forefront of global trends in a commercial approach to PHE, with

the focus on profits and market-related products. The following section deals specifically with HE in South Africa.

2.3 HE IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 The HE environment

In 2010, the public HE environment consisted of 23 public institutions in South Africa. These institutions included 11 universities, six comprehensive universities and six universities of technology (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009).

The problem statement in chapter 1 stipulated that PHE is increasingly competitive and marketing oriented. Hay and Monnapula-Mapesela (2009) confirm that this is also true of public HE and they appeal to contemporary universities to become more service oriented and efficient to ensure their survival. The competition out there is intense. Fourie (2009) adds that universities compete for students, research grants and development contracts which compel academic leaders to become more entrepreneurial.

According to Levy (2002), commercial PHE, much like other organisations in our society, is business oriented. However, Fourie (2009) identifies the following three characteristics that differentiate universities from other organisations: Firstly, universities are systems that are loosely joined with different divisions, with weak links between them and with the larger organisation. Secondly, universities are sometimes referred to as professional bureaucracies where academics are independent to a certain extent and quite often have a stronger allegiance to their subject than to the university. Thirdly, the missions and goals of universities are often vague and although they are traditionally non-profit organisations, they are forced to become more entrepreneurial.

Hay and Monnapula-Mapesela (2009) further stipulate that universities are involved in various social and economic activities and are largely reliant on government funding as part of their income.

As can be seen from the above, the contemporary HE environment is characterised by unique features and challenges.

2.3.2 Governance of HE

After South Africa's first democratic election in 1994 and the abolition of apartheid, policy development in South African HE commenced with the appointment of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE). The main purpose of the NCHE was to create a policy for the transformation of South Africa's HE sector. This process ultimately led to the promulgation of the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997.

The principal recommendations made by the NCHE in its attempt to transform the system were as follows (Hay & Monnapula-Mapesela, 2009:13):

- an expansion of student enrolment and broader access to reach a wider distribution of social groups and classes, including adult learners
- greater responsiveness to societal needs and interests
- increased cooperation and partnership in structures of governance, both at system and institutional levels
- an HE system designed, planned, managed and funded as a single coordination system comprising universities, technikons and colleges
- alignment of qualifications with the NQF allowing adequate channels, flexible entry and exit points and horizontal and vertical mobility
- a strategic public funding framework taking into account the number of students in different fields and levels of study; and addressing the special needs of institutions, such as equity, redress and research infrastructure

- the establishment of an HE quality committee responsible for programme accreditation, institutional auditing and quality promotion
- distance education and resource-based learning

HE in South Africa is highly regulated and almost all decisions are made and plans formulated according to set policies. Several years into the transformation of the HE process, Hay and Monnapula-Mapesela (2009) indicate that a number of challenges still exist in South African HE regarding policy analysis. Some of these challenges include misconceptions about the value of policy which could hamper policy development and the fact that some stakeholders deny their roles in policy issues and are unwilling to make hard choices in the progressive implementation of transformation. There are instances of resistance to policy analysis, funds are sometimes misdirected and apparent poor policy planning prevents the potential advantages of sound policy practices.

According to Botha (2009), regulatory measures by government have increased over the last ten years. These measures include the reform of curricula, restructuring the academic system and holding academics more accountable for the quality and accreditation of programmes. Botha (2009) adds that all HE programmes must be registered with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), accredited by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) and approved by the Department of Education (DoE).

2.3.3 Challenges of HE

With reference to the characteristics of HE in South Africa, Parington and Brown (Koen & Bester, 2009) report that, since the 1990s, HE worldwide has experienced intense changes. These include an increase in the size and diversity of the student population, a greater demand for quality by all stakeholders involved, more responsibility for research and teaching as well as more emphasis on efficient and effective management.

According to Subotzky (2003a:354-355), the current HE system is characterised by the following:

- marked race and gender inequalities, manifesting in three ways: skewed enrolments in various fields of study and qualification levels; unrepresentative staff complements, especially in senior ranks; and disproportionate research output by race, gender, institution type and field of study
- low participation, graduation and success rates
- uneven quality of teaching and learning
- a strict binary divide with a skewed academic/vocational mix and a separate qualifications structure that restricts mobility across the system
- insufficient alignment between programmes and changing labour market needs
- low levels of overall research output
- insufficient managerial and administrative capacity in institutions and in government
- anomalous programme duplication in apartheid-created institutions

To tie in with the challenges mentioned by Subotzky (2003a) in the previous section, Macgregor (2009) states that a study conducted on HE in 15 Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries identified 20 leadership challenges facing HE institutions (including PHE institutions). The study was conducted by the Southern African Universities Association (SARU) in 2008. The findings indicated that SADC has 66 public universities, 119 publicly funded polytechnics or colleges and 178 private universities or colleges. There are more private institutions, but the majority of enrolments are in public institutions with 72% in contact study. The 20 HE leadership challenges identified include the following:

- data collection and availability
- access (of the just over one million students in HE in SADC countries over 70% are in South Africa)
- postgraduate registrations
- student success
- staffing
- funding
- planning capability
- infrastructure and space
- the quality of private provision
- commercialisation and entrepreneurism
- research development
- mobility
- quality
- qualification frameworks
- curricula
- information technologies
- policy and planning
- community engagement
- regional cooperation
- leadership

This study focused on two of the identified challenges, namely service quality and leadership. The primary objective, as stated in chapter 1, was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. The impact of leadership as an independent variable on service quality as a dependent variable was examined.

According to Coughlan (Fourie, 2009), HE has never been stagnant and is constantly evolving. This statement implies that extreme challenges exist for transforming the South African HE environment.

Furthermore, Fourie (2009) predicts a decidedly bleak picture of HE in South Africa. He mentions that moving from the apartheid era to a single coordinated system and poor quality primary and secondary education have contributed to a number of challenges facing HE providers in South Africa. Added to these challenges are declining government subsidies, outstanding student fees and the new concern of the obsession with money and management shares with which quality has to compete. In support of the statements made by Fourie (2009), Nzimande (2009) adds that the end of the apartheid system spelt political freedom, which has led to the marketisation of many public HE institutions. Nowadays, many institutions are preoccupied with generating income, cutting costs and outsourcing. Institutional leadership are in a sense compelled to focus more on administrative and economic matters instead of academic issues.

Similarly, in the early years of the new millennium, Subotzky (2003a) stated that, as in other parts of the world, South African HE faces certain challenges. Besides the increasing competition between public institutions, they also have to contend with competition from PHE providers.

Based on the challenges mentioned by Subotzky (2003a) and Macgregor (2009) above, it would appear that South African HE is not unique in terms of challenges that have to be faced and difficulties that have to be overcome. HE in South Africa consists of two subsectors or environments, namely the public HE environment and the PHE environment. This section offered a broad overview of the public HE environment in South Africa.

As indicated previously, the research in this study was conducted in the context of the PHE environment in South Africa. The following section will explore the PHE sector. The focus will be on the PHE environment, governance of the sector, student and

institutional profiles, public-private partnerships, geographic locations, the for-profit nature as well as a brief look at service quality and leadership in the sector.

2.4 PHE IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.4.1 The PHE environment

PHE in South Africa dates back as far as the 19th century, to the early years of the HE system. According to Mabizela (2006), PHE institutions at that time did not remain private but were later taken over by government to become state owned. Fehnel (2007) explains that the first PHE institution, the South African College, was established in Cape Town in 1829 by prominent members of society who desired better education for their children. In 1918, this college was granted university status and is today known as the University of Cape Town. The Correspondence Act 59 of 1965 was the first piece of legislation by government to regulate private provision of postsecondary education in South Africa (Mabizela, 2006).

The majority of for-profit PHE institutions were established in the 1990s. This surge of private institutions during this period can be attributed to the growing demand in flexible, postsecondary education, especially for market-related short courses and distance education. The perception also existed of declining quality and instability in public institutions owing to post-apartheid transformation (International Education Association of South Africa, 2007).

The PHE sector in South Africa is small compared with the public HE sector in terms of student numbers. However, as noted earlier, the public HE sector comprises 23 institutions, while the PHE sector consists of more than 100 providers. There is now relative stability in the PHE sector in South Africa, with 78 registered institutions, 22 provisionally registered institutions and four institutions that have been granted extension on provisional registration. The 22 provisionally registered institutions did not fulfil the requirements for registration and had six months (until mid-2010) to “get their

house in order" and comply with the requirements (South Africa. Department of Education, 2010). This implies that by 2010, 104 PHE institutions in South Africa would be competing for the same market segment. This ties in with the problem statement in chapter 1, which describes the PHE environment as dynamic and highly competitive.

PHE institutions are mostly situated in urban areas and offer a wide range of product offerings. Most are local institutions because many foreign institutions withdrew their campuses from South Africa after the registration process of PHE institutions became compulsory (see also section 2.3.2). The majority of institutions cater for middle-class students and offer products of quality that are, in many instances, well rated by employers. The product offerings of these institutions range from traditional degrees to diplomas and certificates in niche areas such as theology, commercial arts, beauty, media and marketing, tourism, education, law, sports science, business and management. Some PHE institutions also offer contact sessions leading to qualifications offered by the University of South Africa, a mega university offering open distance learning (International Education Association of South Africa, 2007).

According to Subotzky (2003b), the PHE sector can contribute significantly to the human resource and other developmental goals in South Africa. Mabizela (2006) concurs and states that the NCHE recognised the presence of PHE and the potential advantage this sector has to improve access to HE. The absence of regulation contributed to the rapid growth of the PHE sector. According to the International Education Association of South Africa (2007), in 1995 it was estimated that over 150 000 students were enrolled in private colleges across South Africa. The DoE became concerned because it had received numerous reports implicating "fly-by-night colleges" which lacked suitable qualified personnel and substandard product offerings. This led to the establishment of quality assurance and accreditation processes to regulate the sector. This was to become the responsibility of the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education (CHE). Consequently, all PHE institutions are required to take part in the processes of quality assurance and

accreditation. PHE institutions can only offer courses if they are registered with the DoE (International Education Association of South Africa, 2007).

To date, the PHE sector has received little attention nationally and has been seen as possible competition for the public sector. Owing to the high skills demand in South Africa as well as demands from individual learners, the private sector can no longer be ignored because of the limited capacity of public HE. There is potential for PHE to play an increasingly significant role in providing niche market skills and tertiary education to students (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009).

2.4.2 Governance of PHE

As mentioned in the previous section, PHE can play an increasingly significant role in giving students more access to HE, particularly in niche areas where considerable skills shortages exist. One of the principal challenges in increasing the role of PHE is not to overregulate the sector and not to allow “fly-by-night operators” into the market (South Africa. Department of Education, 1997).

The 1997 White Paper on HE acknowledges funding, planning and quality assurance as the three key factors in transforming HE in South Africa. It further states that these three factors will contribute to high-quality institutions that are equitable, sustainable and well managed. These institutions will also address the needs of economic growth and social development in a new democracy (Council on Higher Education, 2003).

The HE Act 101 of 1997 and its amendments provide a framework that ensures that PHE institutions are financially sound and have the necessary human and physical resources to provide quality programmes. This Act also assigned the responsibility of quality assurance to the CHE. This responsibility is borne by a permanent committee of the CHE, the HEQC, whose functions include accrediting learning programmes, conducting institutional audits of public and private HE institutions and promoting quality. As mentioned by Fourie (2009) in section 2.3.3 above, the HE system in South

Africa is a single coordinated system. There are two basic steps in the creation of such a system in relation to private providers. Firstly, these institutions must be registered with the DoE, and secondly, their programmes must be registered with SAQA. This registration with SAQA confirms that the programmes adhere to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) (Council on Higher Education, 2003). Fehnel (2007) asserts that the new constitution and the HE Act 101 of 1997 make it possible for PHE providers to offer degrees and diplomas. These offerings could previously only be provided by universities and technikons.

Since the 1st of April 2003, PHE institutions have had to comply with the new Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions. These regulations require institutions to register with the DoE. It also states that institutions must be financially viable and comply with health and safety regulations (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009).

The Regulations for the Registration of Private Higher Education Institutions, as described in Mabizela (2006), also insist that an organisation that applies to operate as a PHE institution must provide a written declaration of the following: (1) that it will have the necessary academic and administrative staff with the relevant qualifications and experience to achieve the outcomes and objectives for each learning programme; (2) that it will maintain adequate space, material and equipment to provide tuition to achieve the outcomes and objectives of each learning programme; (3) that it will not exceed the maximum student enrolments that the facilities can accommodate; and (4) that it will maintain full student records, including academic and administrative records, for each learning programme (Mabizela, 2006:157-158).

It is evident from the above-mentioned facts that the PHE environment is highly regulated. According to Asmal (2002), this highly regulated environment will remove fly-by-night PHE institutions that provide poor quality at a considerable cost. However, Cosser (2002) contends that accreditation and registration by no means ensure quality,

but that a quality culture should be nurtured in institutions to be accountable to students and to serve the broader society.

2.4.3 The student and product profile in PHE

Most students enrol at PHE institutions on the basis that they do not have the financial resources to pay for a public provider or that they do not meet the minimum entry requirements of the public institution (Kruss, 2002). Levy (2002) concurs and adds that students who cannot gain access to public HE or the public HE institution of their choice, gain access through the private sector. In addition, Mabizela (Levy, 2003) states that PHE institutions attract traditionally disadvantaged students who failed to gain access to public institutions. These students often enrol at PHE institutions because of the convenience offered by the institution and sometimes the perception is created that a diploma or degree is easily obtainable. Mabizela (2005) adds that distance education previously catered mainly for non-traditional students or working adults. Today, a large number of students who have completed the National Senior Certificate enter distance education through PHE institutions.

As mentioned in section 2.4.1 above, according to Asmal (2002), PHE institutions mostly consist of small providers specialising in programme offerings such as information technology, business, beauty therapy and hospitality, mostly at certificate and diploma level. Mabizela (2006) confirms that most PHE institutions offer mainly business and management studies. In addition, Subotzky (2003b) reports that few PHE providers address the much-needed scarce skills fields such as science, engineering, health and social services. Almost 50% of enrolments at PHE institutions in South Africa are in commerce and management fields. The same trend is evident in other countries, especially in the for-profit PHE market (Levy, 2002). According to the CHE, only 12 of these institutions offer master's degrees and three of them doctoral degrees (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009).

2.4.4 The institutional profile of PHE

Many people still think of HE in terms of university education, despite the rapid growth of PHE worldwide and the fact that most nonuniversity HE is privately owned (Levy, 2002). According to Asmal (2002), although there are many well-established role players in the PHE market, there are currently no private universities registered in South Africa.

Kruss (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009) identifies two subsectors in the South African PHE environment. According to Kruss, the first subsector consists of institutions that hold out the promise of mobility or "better" education and the second those that offer specialised credentials or "different" education.

Institutions that hold out the promise of mobility or, according to Kruss, "better" education, generally target fairly privileged students. Students often choose these institutions because they are convinced that they offer better qualifications, are linked to the workplace and are internationally recognised. Some of these institutions are owned by large holding companies with a strong profit motive. Their product offerings are linked to the marketplace to prepare students for employment, especially in business and management (Kruss, 2004a). The entrance requirements of these institutions are in line with those of public providers. Matriculation exemption is needed to access undergraduate degrees and a bachelor's degree with relevant experience for access to a Master in Business Administration (MBA). Fees in these institutions tend to be higher than those in public institutions. Returns for shareholders are realised through the income from student fees (Kruss, 2004b).

According to Kruss (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009), institutions that offer specialised credentials or (according to Kruss), "different" education, generally target nontraditional students who would not normally enrol in HE. Students choose these institutions because they offer employability, lower fees and flexibility in the learning process. These institutions offer qualifications that are recognised and directly

linked to employability in niche markets. Qualification offerings generally include new occupational fields such as tourism, leisure, entertainment and media (Kruss, 2004a). The study fees charged by these institutions are normally lower because they provide for the previously disadvantaged market. These institutions are generally owned by individuals who are also profit driven with a view to surviving as a small business, relying on student fees as their main source of income (Kruss, 2004b). Figure 2.2 below depicts the two subsectors of PHE in South Africa.

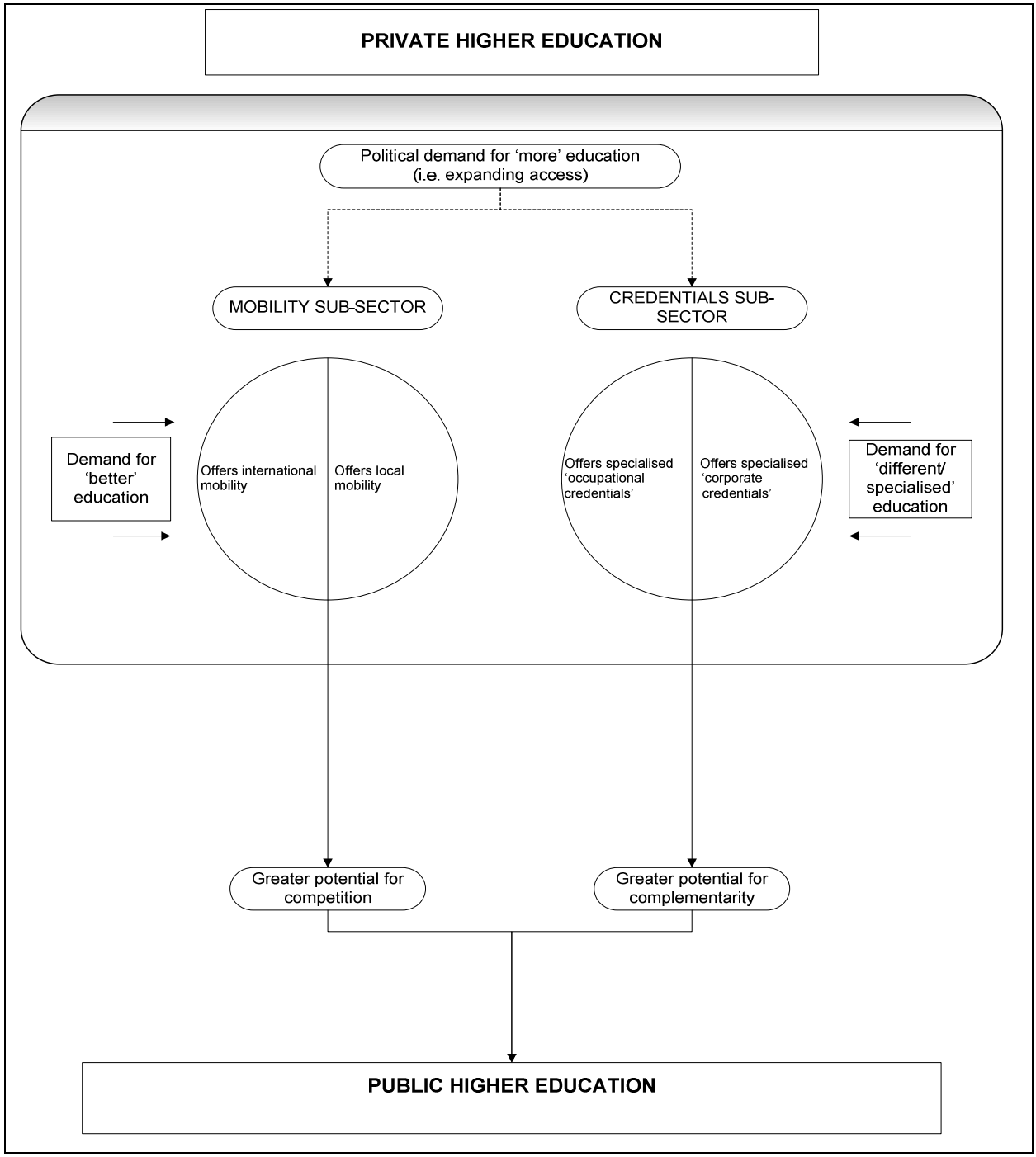

Figure 2.2: PHE subsectors in South Africa

(Source: Kruss, 2004b:7)

In the two subsectors discussed in the previous section, Levy (2003) identifies the following categories of PHE institutions in South Africa: transnational institutions, agency or franchise institutions, technical and vocational education and training institutes (TVET) and corporate classrooms.

(1) *Transnational institutions*. This category includes PHE institutions owned by foreign organisations, but based in South Africa.

(2) *Agency or franchise institutions*. These are local organisations that provide HE. There is a strong profit orientation in this category and many of the PHE institutions are owned by company groups listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE). This category is far larger than the transnational category, both in terms of students and campuses.

(3) *TVET*. Most of the PHE institutions in South Africa form part of this category which consists mostly of small institutions offering qualifications at NQF level 5. Most of the qualifications offered are also not regarded as traditional HE qualifications.

(4) *Corporate classrooms*. The corporate classroom forms part of larger corporations, such as Old Mutual, which prefers to train its own employees.

Linked to the previous section on categories of PHE institutions in South Africa, Kruss (2002) confirms that profit orientation drives PHE in South Africa and that three forms of ownership are evident.

Firstly, the larger PHE institutions in South Africa are owned by companies listed on the JSE. These institutions operate much like traditional universities but with a highly driven profit approach and student fees as their main source of income. The listed holding company usually grants the initial funding to the PHE institution in the form of a capital loan. The holding company then absorbs the profit generated by the institution.

Secondly, the largest number of private institutions is owned by individuals and registered as a proprietary limited. The owners of these institutions bear the financial risk and student fees tend to be lower.

The third form of ownership resides in larger corporations that meet the training needs of the organisation (and sometimes the industry).

The PHE provider selected for this study forms part of the first subsector of the PHE environment previously explained, namely the mobility (so-called “better”’ education) sector. The selected provider forms part of the second category as identified by Levy in a previous section, which is the agency or franchise institution that is exclusively profit driven.

Most of these for-profit-oriented PHE institutions have the following five common values embedded in their vision and mission statements, as identified by Kruss (2002):

- They offer commitment to academic quality.
- They offer the promise of international recognition of qualifications.
- They offer the promise of a safe study environment.
- They aim to prepare students for the workplace.
- They emphasise the fact that their tuition models are flexible to fit the work and family commitments of working students.

2.4.5 Public-private partnerships

According to Mabizela (2005), partnerships between public and private institutions have existed throughout the history of HE in South Africa, and this is certainly not a new practice. In the early 1990s, these partnerships took off and were a means whereby foreign HE institutions could gain access to the South African market. This phenomenon escalated when face-to-face public institutions became involved in distance education. From the mid-1990s, there was pressure on historically white institutions (HWI) to conform to the transformation process in South African HE. One of the goals of this transformation process was to increase the enrolments of black students. Many HWIs responded to this new challenge by offering distance education. This was mainly achieved through partnerships with private institutions.

According to Mabizela (2005), the public-private partnership concept grew because of increased competition in both the public and private sectors, and he identifies the following reasons for establishing partnerships, from the perspective of both the private and public sectors:

- Private providers had to build their reputations and credibility as HE providers.
- Being in a partnership with a reputable public provider would attract more students because this would give credibility to the PHE institution's own programmes.
- There was a great need for public distance education students to receive face-to-face tuition.
- Public institutions had to show compliance with the transformation agenda of HE.
- Many public institutions were (and still are) inaccessible to students residing in remote areas, and being in partnership with a PHE provider was a means to reach out to those students.

The South African government is in favour of increasing access to HE through public-private partnerships. The condition for these partnerships, according to the CHE, is that they must be responsible partnerships. The National Plan for Higher Education also stipulates that PHE provision can complement public provision. The main goal of public-private partnerships was to take HE to the people and create a sound HE academic culture. However, these partnerships were not developed to address social development, but were purely profit driven. If one considers the above reasons for the formation of public-private partnerships, it is debatable whether the main goal of these partnerships has in fact been achieved (Mabizela, 2005).

2.4.6 The geographic location of PHE institutions

Figure 2.3 below summarises the geographic location of PHE institutions by province.

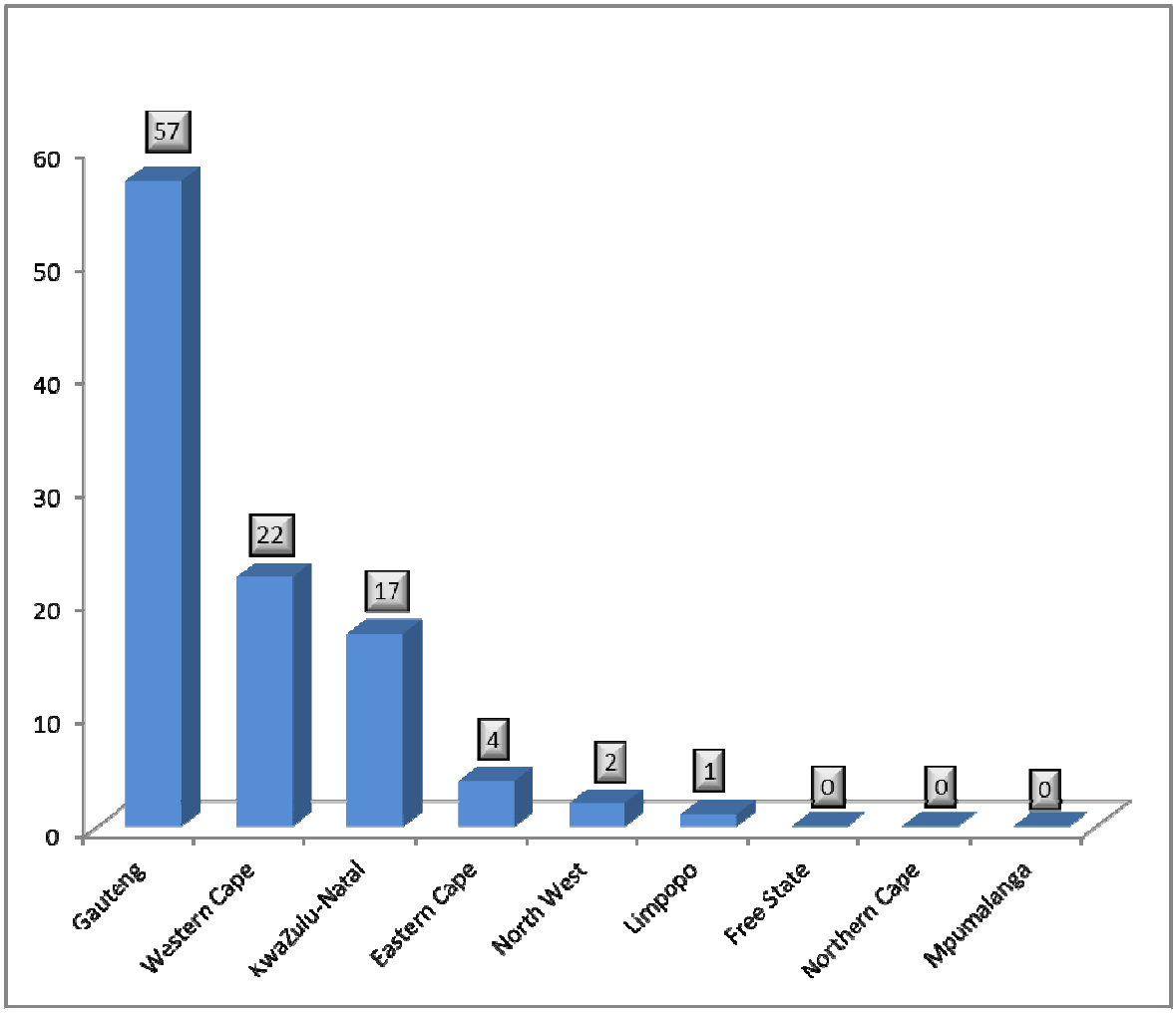

Figure 2.3: The geographic location of PHE institutions in South Africa

(Source: Adapted from South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009:12)

Figure 2.3 illustrates the number of PHE institutions across the nine provinces in South Africa. Gauteng hosts 57 of all registered PHE institutions, the Western Cape 22, KwaZulu-Natal 17, the Eastern Cape four, North West two and Limpopo one. There are no registered PHE institutions in the Free State, Northern Cape and Mpumalanga.

According to Mabizela (2006), the geographic spread of PHE institutions is linked to the type of customer (student) in the PHE environment. He suggests the following three reasons for the location of these institutions:

Firstly, institutions are located in urban areas with high levels of business activities. There are large numbers of employees (potential customers or students) who need higher-level skills or qualifications. Secondly, there is a wide variety of industries in these areas that utilise the skills of these institutions, for example, training programmes offered after hours for personnel. Finally, there is a strong presence of public institutions in these areas. Students who fail to gain entrance to a public HE institution, have the option to enrol at a PHE provider.

2.4.7 For-profit nature of PHE

The problem statement in chapter 1 states that PHE in South Africa is increasingly competitive and marketing oriented. In order for PHE institutions to survive in this dynamic environment, they must be profit driven and have an entrepreneurial orientation. Kruss (2004b) concurs with this statement by indicating that the primary reason for the establishment of these institutions is indeed profit. According to Levy (2002), commercial PHE originates from market needs and not from government initiatives, and it is directly linked to economic forces. Hence most of the PHE institutions in South Africa are profit driven and the qualifications offered reflect the need as identified by students (South Africa. Council on Higher Education, 2009). This is confirmed by Levy (2003), who states that in South Africa, according to law, PHE institutions must declare themselves as for-profit or nonprofit. For-profit institutions form the majority of the PHE sector, which is fairly unique since PHE institutions in most parts of the world are legally nonprofit organisations.

As mentioned previously in section 2.4.1, the PHE sector experienced major growth in the 1990s. Fehnel (2007) suggests the following possible three reasons for this growth:

- the conviction that government was going to invest substantially in education and training
- the lack of regulation in the sector
- the belief that this sector would become highly profitable

In addition, Mabizela (2006) states that many of the larger PHE providers are listed companies on the JSE. One of the additional reasons for listing these institutions on the JSE is to increase their capital base with an accompanying additional source of income - in other words, greater profit.

The for-profit element is evident in almost all of the key aspects of South African PHE providers. These include the provider's mission, the functions of role players in HE, links to the job market and relationships with the public sector. Growth in South Africa's PHE sector fits the worldwide surge of PHE growth in other parts of the world. The unique entrepreneurial and for-profit focus in the South African PHE sector was mentioned earlier (Levy, 2002). Tilak (2006) adds that a for-profit PHE institution operates like a business, with every department treated as a so-called "profit centre". In other words, every single department, from admissions to the research department, must focus on generating as much revenue as possible.

As mentioned earlier in section 2.3.1, in order to survive in the face of intense competition, public HE institutions also need to be efficient and service oriented. Levy (2003) adds that there may also be competition between public and private providers of HE for funds and students. The possible threat that public institutions should be aware of is that private institutions can easily adapt to the market demand and satisfy the need for job-related qualifications which are becoming increasingly popular.

The discussion above confirms that the PHE sector is profit driven and that it responds to market forces and demands from customers (students). Mabizela (2005) agrees by stating that PHE institutions, like all other organisations, must be dynamic to ensure their long-term survival in the market. This means that PHE institutions are just like other businesses that continually face new challenges and are often compelled to seek alternative means of growth in order to remain competitive.

2.4.8 Service quality and leadership

This section briefly discusses the importance of service quality and leadership in the PHE environment. A detailed discussion of these two constructs will be provided in chapters 3 and 4 respectively.

According to Varey (1993), HE is an environment in which service quality is recognised as a key strategic and business tool. Quality in HE is one or more of the following (Varey, 1993:45):

- a measure of high standards
- uniformity in meeting process specifications
- fitness for purpose or use
- value for money
- successful transformation of the educated

Varey (1993) adds that managing quality requires effective leadership. Because the focus is on value for money, continuous service quality improvement is necessary for the success and survival of organisations providing HE. Service quality cannot therefore be emphasised enough. Levy (2002) acknowledges the significance of this in for-profit PHE by stating that the student is the paying customer and most of the PHE providers in South Africa rely totally on student tuition fees as their main source of income. Levy (2003) adds that the management style of a business is in line with that of a PHE institution since profit is the main focus. One of the core divisions in this "business-like" PHE institution is the faculty, whose primary function is to serve students. These faculties have even been referred to as "delivery people", because they deliver to and for students. Public providers frequently offer qualifications in line with their own interests. By contrast, PHE institutions offer qualifications based on the needs of the market. Breneman (2005) concurs with these statements and reports that one of the characteristics of a successful PHE provider is a focused approach to training for employment and treating students as clients or consumers.

2.5 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the HE environment in South Africa with the emphasis on the PHE environment. The first section of this chapter briefly mentioned PHE in selected developed and developing countries. The next section briefly detailed the public HE environment, including the governance and challenges of this sector. A discussion on the PHE environment followed with the emphasis on governance, student and institutional profile, partnerships with public providers, the geographic location of PHE institutions and the for-profit nature of these institutions. Service quality and leadership, the primary focus of this study, were introduced in the PHE environment. Many authors maintain that the PHE environment is dynamic and constantly changing. This indicates the importance of continuously studying this sector in order to understand how it can be developed to support the HE system in South Africa, together with the public HE sector.

Chapter 3 will investigate service quality as one of the constructs that forms part of the main purpose of this study – the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa. The SERVQUAL instrument will also be reviewed as a means to measure service quality in a PHE institution.

CHAPTER 3: SERVICE QUALITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the HE environment in South Africa with the emphasis on the PHE environment. The purpose of this chapter is to gain insight into quality and more specifically service quality, and its significance in the PHE environment as a competitive factor. Quality and quality management will be introduced and the focus will then shift to services and service quality. The chapter goes on to identify different service quality models and offer a detailed description of the SERVQUAL measurement instrument. The use of this particular measurement instrument is also justified in this study. The chapter concludes with criticisms of the SERVQUAL instrument and its applications in research.

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 3.1 below.

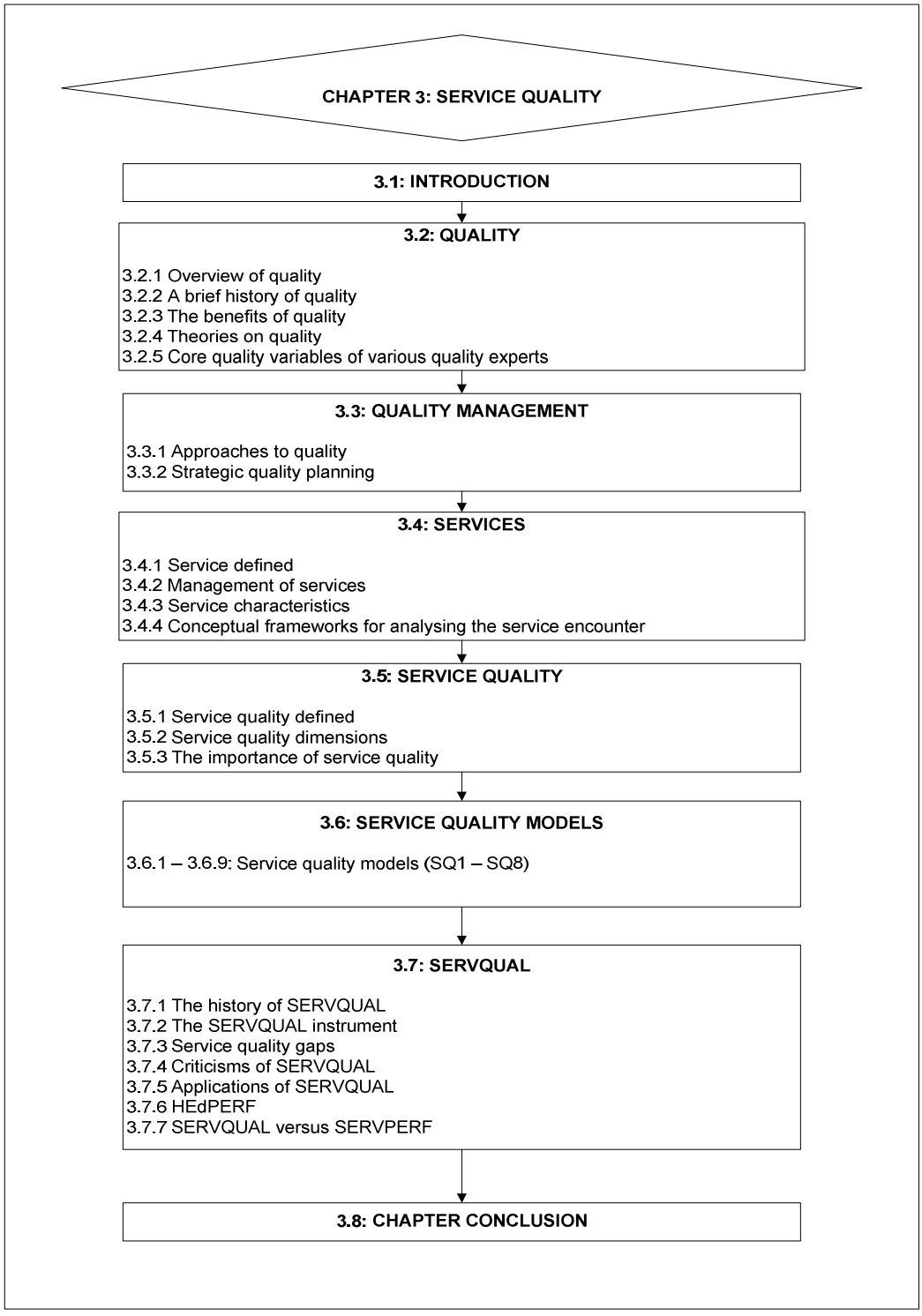

Figure 3.1: Layout of chapter 3

3.2 QUALITY

The following section explains quality, its history and benefits as a business principle and various quality experts' theories of the concept.

3.2.1 Overview of quality

There are numerous definitions of quality. Some experts refer to it as zero defects while others see it as a superior or excellent product or service (Ramphal, 2011b). Many quality professionals simply refer to quality as "everything that makes a consumer satisfied" (Harding, 2005). According to Pycraft, Singh, Phihlela, Slack, Chambers and Johnston (2010), quality is consistent with the expectations of customers, which involves "doing things right". Most organisations regard quality as essential because in some instances it is the only visible part of what the organisation does and it is something that the customer can judge fairly easily. If the customer's perception is that the product is of a high quality, the possibility exists that he or she will return to the business in the future.

The core focus of quality is to meet customer expectations. Pycraft *et al.* (2010:505) define quality as "… the degree of fit between customers' expectations and customer perception of the product or service". Figure 3.2 indicates that perceived quality is governed by the gap between the customer's perception and expectation of the product or service. If the product or service experience was better than expected, then the customer will perceive the quality thereof to be high. The converse is also true: if the product or service experience was less than expected, its quality will be perceived as low and this may lead to dissatisfaction. Hence, if the customer's expectations are met, he or she deems the quality to be acceptable.

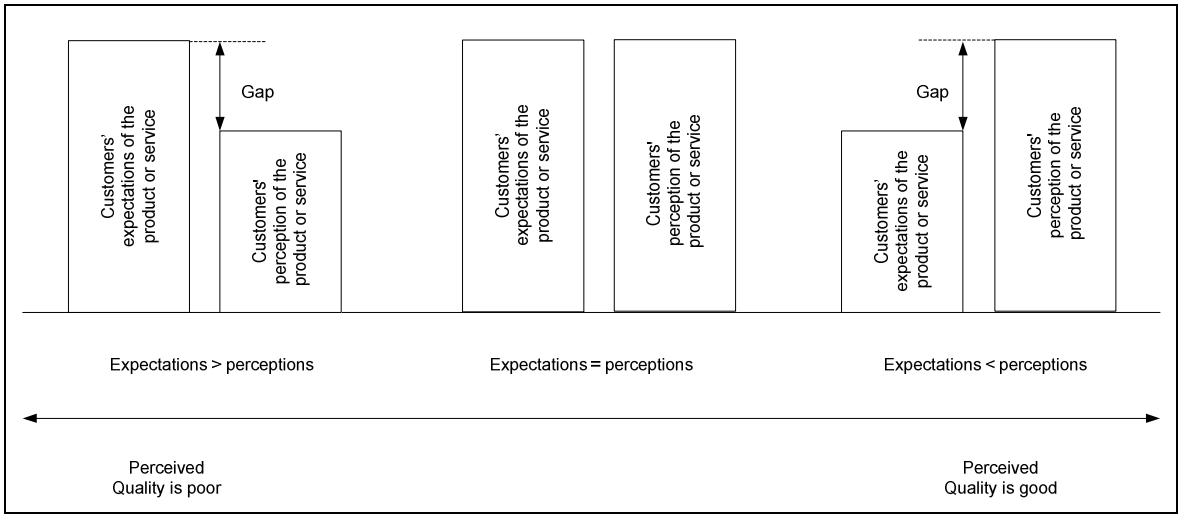

Figure 3.2: Perceived quality is governed by the gap between the customer's P and E of the product or service

(Source: Pycraft *et al*., 2010:506)

The gap between the customer's perception and expectation of quality will be discussed in more detail in sections 3.6 and 3.7 in this chapter.

In an attempt to define quality, a study involving 86 organisations in the USA was conducted. The study involved asking the managers of these organisations to define quality.

The results of the study indicated various definitions of quality as indicated below (Evans 2011:5):

- perfection
- consistency
- eliminating waste
- speed of delivery
- compliance with policies and procedures
- providing a good, usable product
- doing it right the first time
- delighting or pleasing customers

- total customer service and satisfaction

One of the most respected collections of definitions of quality was compiled by Garvin (Foster 2010). According to this definition, quality is transcendent, product based, user based, manufacturing based or value based (Foster, 2010:30).

These terms are explained below:

- **Transcendent**. Quality is something that is intuitively understood but nearly impossible to communicate, such as beauty or love.
- **Product based**. Quality is found in the components and attributes of a product.
- **User based**. If the customer is satisfied, the quality of the product is acceptable.
- **Manufacturing based**. If the product conforms to the design specifications, its quality is satisfactory.
- **Value based**. If the product is perceived to provide good value for the price, its quality is acceptable.

Based on this collection of the definition of quality, Garvin (Foster, 2010:31) compiled a list of eight product quality dimensions:

- **Performance** refers to the efficiency with which a product achieves its intended purpose.
- **Features** are attributes of a product that supplement the product's basic performance.
- **Reliability** refers to the propensity for a product to perform consistently over its useful design life.
- **Conformance** is perhaps the most traditional definition of quality. When a product is designed, certain numerical dimensions for its performance are established, such as capacity, speed, size, durability and the like. These numerical dimensions are referred to as specifications.
- **Durability** is the degree to which a product tolerates stress or trauma without failing.
- **Serviceability** is the ease of repair of a product.

- **Aesthetics** are subjective sensory characteristics such as taste, feel, sound, look and smell.
- **Perceived** quality is based on customer opinion.

There does not seem to be a single recognised definition of quality. However, regardless of the context in which it is used, it usually distinguishes one product, process, service or organisation from another (Dale, Van der Wiele & Van Iwaarden, 2007).

It is necessary to consider the history of the quality movement in order to provide a holistic perspective of quality as a concept.

3.2.2 A brief history of quality

Table 3.1 below depicts the brief history of the quality movement.

Table 3.1: History of quality

Early 1900s	Frederick Taylor, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth, and scientific management
1920s	Walter Shewhart and statistical process control
1930s	Dodge and Romig introduce acceptance sampling
1940s	Military standards introduced
1950s	Deming and Juran introduce quality management in Japan
1960s	Taguchi method and other tools developed
1970s	Quality becomes strategic, beginning of major adoption in the United States
1980s	"If Japan Can, Why Can't We?" airs on U.S. TV; introduction of lean with

	Schonberger, Shingo and Hall; TQM and empowerment become watchwords in quality field; Baldrige award programme implemented
1990s	Re-engineering and Six Sigma become major movements with mixed results; wide dissemination of quality approaches
2000s	Growth of supply chain management and improvement of supplier development; lean Six Sigma becomes popular; contingency theory in quality becomes recognised as important

(Source: Foster, 2010:60)

Table 3.1 shows that quality as a concept has evolved and developed over many years.

3.2.3 The benefits of quality

A focus on quality in an organisation indicates several benefits, as highlighted in figure 3.3, which illustrates the ways in which quality improvements can impact on a company's performance. Revenues can be increased by better sales and prices in the market. Costs can also be reduced by improved efficiencies and productivity (Pycraft *et al.,* 2010).

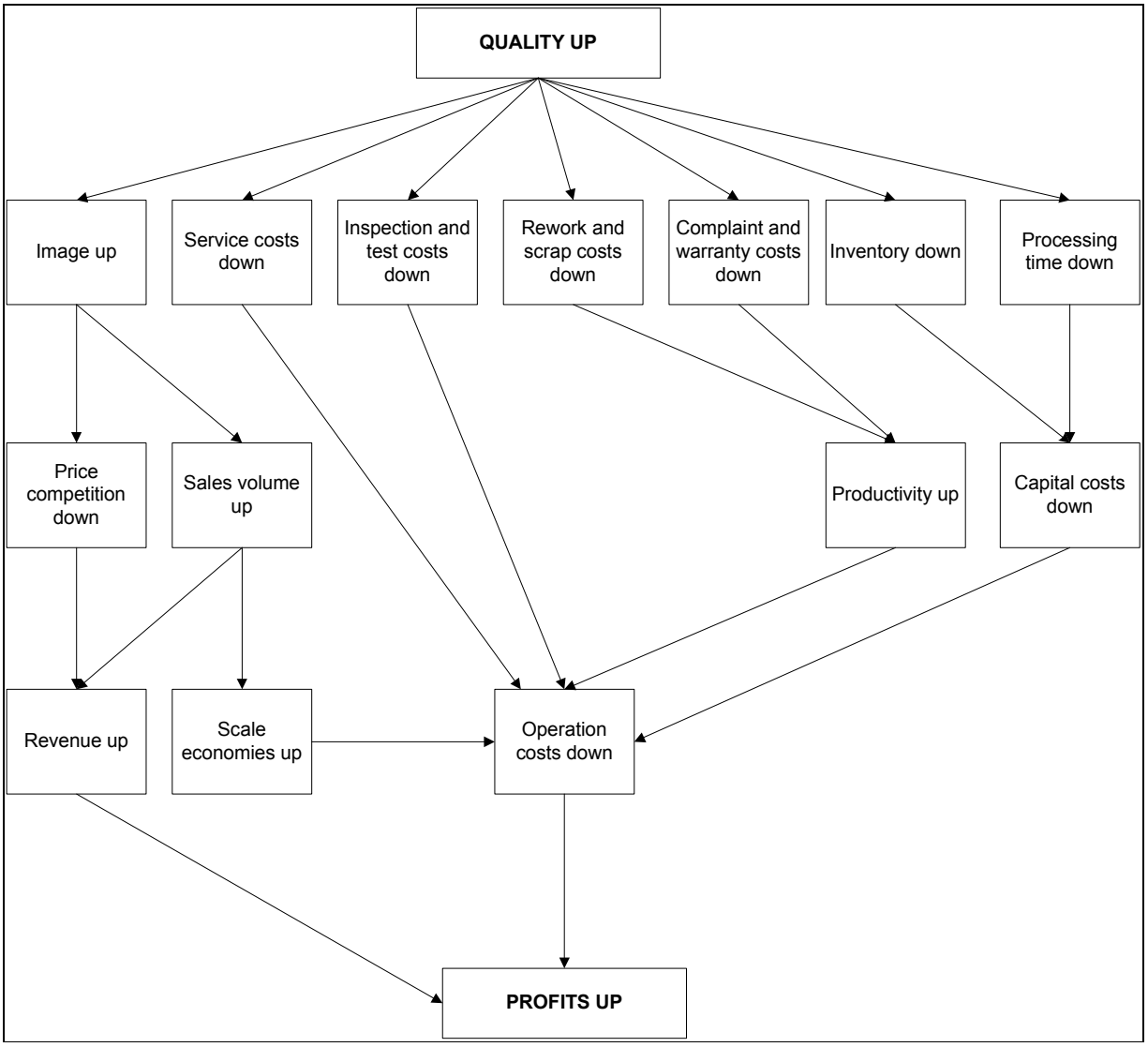

Figure 3.3: Higher quality has a beneficial effect on both revenue and costs

(Source: Pycraft *et al*., 2010:504)

In addition to the benefits of quality indicated in figure 3.3, Dale *et al.* (2007:12–23) report the following benefits of quality after studying a number of successful organisations in the USA:

- Quality and service improvements enhance an organisation's revenue.
- Higher quality leads to higher profit margins since customers are prepared to pay a premium price for better quality.

- Quality increases productivity.
- Quality leads to better performance in the marketplace.
- Quality means improved business performance.
- Quality improves work life.
- Quality decreases costs. As quality increases, there is a decrease in complaints, scrap and rework that results in a decrease in costs (Gryna *et al.*, 2007).

It is evident from the section above that a focus on quality will not only lead to tangible benefits for the organisation, but also intangible benefits such as a better quality work life for its employees.

3.2.4 Theories on quality

There are several theories on quality management. Theories can be established in two ways, namely induction and deduction. Induction involves observation and description, while deduction involves the development of a model based on prior research and tests to verify models (Foster, 2010). Many of the concepts and models in quality management have been developed through induction by quality experts such as Deming, Juran and Crosby, who based their principles on years of experience in a wide variety of organisations (Ramphal, 2011b).

Table 3.2 provides a summary of the research of the leading quality experts.

Table 3.2: Research of the leading quality experts (1950s–1980s)

Expert	Theory Summary
W. Edwards Deming	Emphasis on the management of a system for the improvement of quality. His thinking was based on the use of statistics for continual improvement.
Joseph M. Juran	Promoted the view that quality problems are mainly the result of insufficient and ineffective planning for quality. Companies must revise and master their strategic planning processes. He also

	identified three processes essential for managing quality improvement. These three processes are known as the "Juran Trilogy" and comprise planning, control and improvement.
Kaoru Ishikawa	He was a great believer in training and maintained that success depends on everyone in the organisation being responsible for statistical analysis and interpretation. Perhaps his greatest achievement was the development of the seven basic tools of quality, namely process maps, check sheets, histograms, scatter plots, control charts, cause and effect diagrams and Pareto analysis.
Armand Feigenbaum	He studied quality in the context of a business organisation; his main contribution to quality thinking in America was the claim that the entire organisation should be involved in quality improvement. He proposed a three-step process to improving quality: quality leadership, quality technology and organisational commitment.
Philip Crosby	The core of his theory is that quality can be a source of profit. His approach focused on behavioural and motivational factors rather than on statistical methods, and he adopted a human approach to the quality improvement plan.
Genichi Taguchi	Ideal quality refers to a reference point for determining the quality level of a product or service. This reference point is expressed as a target value. Ideal quality is delivered if a product or service performs its intended function throughout its projected life under reasonable operating conditions without harmful side effects. In services, because production and consumption often occur simultaneously, ideal quality is a function of customer perceptions and satisfaction. Service quality is measured in terms of loss to society if the service is not performed as expected.

(Source: Adapted from Foster, 2010:60-76)

3.2.5 Core quality variables of various quality experts

As indicated in table 3.2, the leading quality experts identified various common themes. Foster (2010) compiled a list of these common themes as highlighted below.

(1) **Leadership.** The role of the leader is the critical and primary force behind quality improvement.
(2) **Employee involvement.** Employees must be trained and developed.
(3) **Quality assurance.** Quality can only be assured during the design phase of the production process. A proactive approach towards quality should be followed.
(4) **Customer focus.** An understanding of customer requirements is crucial to quality management.
(5) **Quality philosophy.** A quality philosophy towards quality improvement is important.
(6) **Information analysis.** Data gathering and statistical control are key variables for quality improvement.
(7) **Strategic planning.** This provides a framework to link the quality strategy to the company's key business factors.
(8) **Infrastructure.** An environment must be created to support quality management efforts.
(9) **Team approach.** Cross-functional and project teams are sound approaches to quality improvement efforts.
(10) **Focus on the quality department.** The quality department should refrain from performing a policing function and focus instead on a coaching function. The message should be that the entire workforce should take responsibility for quality improvement.
(11) **Breakthrough.** The focus should be on radical improvement instead of continuous improvement.

3.3 QUALITY MANAGEMENT

In this section only an overview of quality management as a business principle is provided so as not to deviate from the main purpose of the study.

Chapter 1 indicated that the primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in the HE environment in South Africa, and more specifically, the PHE environment. The key element in implementing quality strategies and achieving a successful competitive advantage is leadership by top management. Commitment to quality by management is assumed but it is not enough. Top management must develop and implement strategies for quality through personal leadership (Gryna *et al.,* 2007).

3.3.1 Approaches to quality

Two of the most popular approaches to quality, namely total quality management (TQM) and the Six Sigma approach will be briefly described in the following sections.

3.3.1.1 Total quality management (TQM)

The focus of TQM is on designing and delivering quality products to customers. It is a company-wide approach to quality and can significantly improve company performance. After World War I, the TQM approach was developed and implemented in Japanese organisations by Dr W. Deming and Dr Joseph Duran.

During the last few decades, TQM has become the basis of quality programmes in large and small organisations alike (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010; Pearce & Robinson, 2005). In addition, Pearce and Robinson (2005) state that TQM can be viewed as a new organisational culture. It focuses on customer satisfaction, continuous improvement and relationships based on teamwork and trust. Furthermore, Pycraft *et al.* (2010) define TQM as a holistic approach to quality management that emphasises the role of everyone in the organisation to influence and improve quality.

Similarly, Malnyk and Denzler (cited in Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:370) define TQM as "a culture; inherent in this culture is a total commitment to quality and attitude expressed by everybody's involvement in the process of continuous improvement of products and services, through the use of innovative scientific methods".

a Principles of TQM

According to Ehlers and Lazenby (2010), this definition identifies the four basic principles of TQM. The first principle is commitment to quality. The entire workforce, including top management and suppliers, need to be committed to quality. The second principle involves the use of scientific tools and methods to help managers effect changes in processes and procedures. The third principle is involvement in quality through teamwork and empowerment. The last principle is never-ending continuous improvement.

b The focus of TQM

Similar to Ehlers and Lazenby's four principles mentioned above, Pycraft *et al.* (2010) state that the focus of TQM is on

- meeting the needs of customers
- covering the whole organisation
- including everyone in the organisation
- examining all costs relating to quality
- doing things "right the first time"
- developing systems to support quality and improvement
- continuous improvement

TQM is thus a vital quality approach in the sense that it involves everyone in the organisation in the process of continuous improvement.

3.3.1.2 Six Sigma

The Six Sigma approach was first used by Motorola in the 1980s and has been

described by some as the new TQM. The core of the Six Sigma methodology is an improvement in profitability. It requires leadership and is a popular continuous improvement tool for realising above-average financial returns. The Six Sigma approach consists of five steps which include define, measure, analyse, improve and control (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010; Brue, 2002).

According to Pearce and Robinson (2011), the Six Sigma approach is highly analytical and rigorous in its focus on achieving improved profits through defect reduction, improved customer satisfaction and best-in-class performance. Six Sigma, like TQM, also focuses on leadership, education, customers and statistics. According to Brue (2002), Six Sigma is a statistical concept that measures a process in terms of defects (3.4 million defects per million opportunities), it is a management philosophy that focuses on the elimination of defects. Six Sigma is not a theory. It defines, measures, analyses, improves and controls the processes that link quality improvement to bottom-line results.

3.3.2 Strategic quality planning

Effective strategies focus on business requirements (Ramphal, 2011b). Strategic planning helps leaders to determine an organisation's future by aligning the organisation's vision, mission, goals and objectives to ensure survival in the long term. In addition, according to Summers (2005), for every organisation that wishes to maximise its success, decisions on what to emphasise and how resources should be allocated must be made accordingly. Strategic planning involves everyone in linking the organisation's vision, mission, and core values to the present situation in order to focus strategic activities now and in the future. Strategic quality planning adopts a broader view of the planning process than traditional strategic planning as indicated in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3: Quality and traditional strategic planning

Strategic Quality Planning	Traditional Strategic Planning
Focus on customers.	Focus is not defined or spread among many considerations.
Leaders determine critical success factors.	Leaders lack understanding of factors critical to success.
Goals and objectives are process and results orientated.	Goals and objectives are results orientated.
Goals and objectives are based on data and are driven by trend or pattern analysis.	Goals and objectives may be based on hunches or guesses.
Focus is on processes.	Focus is on products.
Alignment exists between critical success factors, mission, vision, goals, objectives and day-to-day activities.	No alignment exists.
Everyone knows how his or her day-to-day activities align with critical success factors, mission, vision, goals and objectives.	Few people know how their day-to-day activities fit in with the plan.
Improvement activities are focussed on activities critical to success.	Improvement activities lack focus.
Improvement activities are both within and across functional areas.	Improvement activities are usually within functional areas.

(Source: Summers, 2005:113)

Strategies are so-called “game plans” for the future and define strategic quality management as creating long-term customer goals describing the approach to achieve

those goals. Strategic quality management should be part of the overall strategic plan and developed and implemented by top management (Gryna *et al.,* 2007).

The basic elements of strategic quality management include the following (Gryna *et al.,* 2007:243-244):

- Define the mission and critical success factors.
- Study the internal and external environments, and identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to the organisation.
- Define a long-term, ultimate goal (a “vision”).
- Develop key strategies to achieve the vision.
- Develop strategic goals (long term and short term).
- Subdivide the goals and develop operational plans and projects (“deploy the goals”) to achieve the goals.
- Provide executive leadership to implement strategies.
- Review progress with measurements, assessments and audits.

Strategic quality management is a relatively new concept and detailed approaches to its implementation are still evolving. However, there are certain necessary components for strategic quality management to be successful, such as a focus on customer needs; continuous improvement throughout the organisation; understanding the customer market; leadership; translation of strategies into annual business plans; and adequate resource allocation (Gryna *et al*., 2007).

Inherent in this study is the concept of services, which will be discussed in the following section.

3.4 SERVICES

Services are as old as transactions and interactions between people. Services have been studied since the 1980s, when socialists examined service customers and service personnel in department stores by means of participation and observation (Pieters & Botschen, 1999).

Today, service managers need to design service delivery systems with technical efficiency which provides a satisfying experience for customers (Prideaux, Moscardo & Laws, 2006). The importance of sound service delivery is evident in the fact that organisations not only compete in terms of physical products, but also on the basis of the service provided. Owing to the huge number of product offerings in the market, the competitive advantage of the service component is becoming increasingly critical. Organisations with similar product offerings can differentiate themselves through service delivery – not "what" is offered but "how" it is offered. The "how" is what truly adds value to the customer (Kandampully & Kandampully, 2006). The vital role of service quality will be elaborated on in section 3.5.3.

3.4.1 Service defined

Services are often produced and consumed at the same time. This implies that the consumer is in the "factory" and experiences total service in the organisation's physical facility. This "factory" cannot be hidden and has a powerful impact on the consumer's perception of the service experience (Bitner, 1992).

Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler (2008:6) define services as "all economic activities whose output is not a physical product or construction, is generally consumed at the time it is produced, and provides added value in forms (such as convenience, amusement, comfort or health) that are essentially intangible concerns of its first purchaser". In addition, according to Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff and Terblanche (2004), services are deeds or acts that cannot be physically owned and are thus intangible. The principal characteristic of a service is that it is intangible. The characteristics of services will be discussed in more detail in section 3.4.3.

3.4.1.1 Service marketing mix

One of the fundamental concepts in marketing literature is the marketing mix. It is referred to as the elements that an organisation can control to satisfy or communicate

with customers. It consists of the four Ps: product, price, place (or distribution) and promotion (Wilson *et al.,* 2008).

In addition to the four Ps of the marketing mix, the service marketing mix consists of people, physical evidence and process. People refer to all human activities that are part of the service delivery process and that influence the customer's perception of service delivery. This includes the organisation's personnel, customers and other customers in the service environment. Physical evidence is the environment in which the service is delivered and where interaction between the organisation and the customer takes place. It includes all tangible elements that assist the communication or performance of the service. Process includes the flow of activities, procedures, mechanisms and operating systems used to deliver the service (Lamb *et al.*, 2004; Wilson *et al.*, 2008)

3.4.1.2 Service categories

Services can be categorised as internal or external services, as well as voluntary or involuntary services. According to Foster (2010), in external services, it is the customer who pays the bill. Internal services are "in-house" services such as mail, printing and data processing. Foster (2010) also states that voluntary services are the services the customer seeks such as a hotel, a petrol station or the choice of a restaurant. Involuntary services are those services the customer does not necessarily choose such as a hospital or police department. Customers generally have unclear expectations of this type of service. It is also more difficult to realise high levels of satisfaction in involuntary services.

3.4.2 Management of services

According to Kotler (2000), well-managed service organisations share certain common practices, namely a strategic concept, a history of top management commitment to quality, high standards, systems for monitoring service performance and customer

complaints and an emphasis on employee satisfaction. These practices are explained below.

- **Strategic concept**. Top service organisations are "obsessed" with their customers, know and understand their customers' needs and have well-developed strategies to satisfy these needs.
- **Top management commitment**. Top management do not focus only on financial performance, but also on service performance on a month-to-month basis.
- **Top service organisations' high standards for service**. A distinction can be made between organisations offering a "good" service and those that strive for a "breakthrough" of a 100% defect-free service.
- **Auditing of service performance.** Organisations should monitor systems that regularly audit service performance.
- **Satisfying customer complaints**. On average, a satisfied customer tells three people about a good experience, whereas an unsatisfied customer complains to 11 people.
- **Satisfying both employees and customers**. Top service organisations believe that employee relations affect customer relations, and the focus is therefore on employee support and rewards.

Palmer (2008) concurs with the common practices mentioned by Kotler (2000) in the previous section and indicates that service quality does not happen by chance. Organisations need to develop strategies for reliable top-quality services. Palmer (2008) further contends that certain characteristics are evident in organisations that render these high-quality services. These include top management commitment where measures of service quality are just as important as financial performance – hence a customer-focused approach in the organisation and a culture that rewards employees for being customer-centric. This entails satisfying customers and employees on the basis that satisfied employees will probably result in satisfied customers. Suitable service quality monitoring systems are required for this.

In addition, according to Wilson *et al.* (2008), successful service organisations share certain common themes such as commitment to employee investment and trust-based

relationships as well as value-driven leadership. Similarly, Seth, Deshmukh and Vrat (2005) report that if internal customers are dissatisfied, it will be difficult to establish satisfactory quality service for external customers. Owing to the globalisation of services as well as increased competitive demands, the involvement of top management and leadership is becoming increasingly vital in rendering excellent services.

Grönfeldt and Strother (2006) argue that the traditional role of the manager is changing in the new service era. There is a movement towards a more participative and supportive role of encouraging, rewarding and empowering employees. In the new service era, managers are becoming more of a combination of coach, cheerleader and team member. Table 3.4 compares the new role with the traditional role of managers.

Table 3.4: The changing role of the manager in services

The manager as	**Traditional role**	**New service era role**
Coach	Top-down management Authoritative Clearly the *boss*	Mentors and trains Empowers Encourages
Cheerleader	Occasionally gives formal recognition for outstanding performance Gives special awards Recognises employees through raises and bonuses	Frequently recognises good performance Supports Encourages by attitude Helps all organisational members feel good about themselves and their role in the company
Team member	Never	Participates actively Does his or her part Leads by example

(Source: Adapted from Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006:231)

As indicated in table 3.4, there is a significant difference between the traditional roles of the manager in services compared to the new service era role. The new role adopts a more participative and “human” approach to the management of services.

3.4.3 Service characteristics

The diversity in service industries gives rise to certain unique characteristics, as highlighted below. A physical product may be involved, such as a restaurant meal. Contact with a service person might not take place, for instance, using an ATM machine instead of withdrawing money inside a bank and interacting with a teller. Contact with a service person may be verbal or in person (a call centre or a salesperson). The service might be brief or extended, for example, a retail transaction or electricity services. Finally, the service person may have various degrees of knowledge, say a fast-food service or financial advice from a stock broker (Gryna *et al.*, 2007).
Services are differentiated from physical products by four unique characteristics, namely intangibility, inseparability, perishability and heterogeneity (Lamb *et al.*, 2004). These characteristics of services will be described in more detail in the sections below.

3.4.3.1 Intangibility

Services cannot be seen, touched, tasted, felt or smelled in the same way as physical goods can be sensed. They cannot be inventoried or stored for long periods of time and they are difficult to duplicate. There are usually little or no tangible evidence once the service has been performed. Services are also more difficult to measure than physical products (Foster, 2010; Grönroos, 1988; Kotler, 2000 ; Lamb *et al.,* 2004; Lewis, 2007; Palmer, 2008).

3.4.3.2 Inseparability

Physical products are produced, sold and then consumed, whereas services are often produced, sold and consumed at the same time and place (Lamb *et al.,* 2004). This means that the production and consumption of services are inseparable activities.

Services cannot therefore be produced in a centralised location and consumed in decentralised locations. Hence the service interaction between staff and customers is an integral part of the service delivery process (Lewis, 2007; Palmer, 2008). Kotler (2000) and Foster (2010) agree with this view and add that services are produced and consumed simultaneously. This means that the customer is present during the production of service which makes it impossible for the service provider to hide any quality shortfall (Lau, Akbar & Gun Fie, 2005).

3.4.3.3 Perishability

Because the services offered cannot be stored, warehoused or inventoried, supply and demand need to be managed by service organisations (Kotler, 2000; Lamb *et al.,* 2004; Lewis, 2007).

3.4.3.4 Heterogeneity

Services tend to be less standardised and uniform than goods. Quality control and consistency are difficult to achieve because services are labour intensive and production and consumption are inseparable (Lamb *et al.,* 2004; O'Brian & Deans, 1996). In addition, Lewis (2007) and Foster (2010) state that variability in services often exists because of nonstandardisation of delivery. Standardisation and the training of service personnel may help to increase the quality control and consistency of the service delivery process because the staff will understand the customer's requirements and react appropriately (Ghobadian, Speller & Jones, 1994).

In section 3.2.1, the eight product quality dimensions were described as part of the discussion of what quality entails. Following on the discussion, table 3.5 below summarises the differences between goods and services and the implications of these characteristics.

Table 3.5: Goods and services

Goods	Services	Resulting Implications
Tangible	Intangible	Services cannot be inventoried Services cannot be easily patented Services cannot be readily displayed or communicated Pricing is difficult
Standardised	Heterogeneous	Service delivery and customer satisfaction depend on employee and customer actions Service quality depends on many uncontrollable factors There is no sure knowledge that the service delivered matches what was planned and promoted
Production separate from consumption	Inseparability – simultaneous production and consumption	Customers participate in and affect the transaction Customers affect each other Employees affect the service outcome Decentralisation may be essential Mass production is difficult
Non-perishable	Perishable	It is difficult to synchronise supply and demand with services Services cannot be returned or resold

(Source: Wilson *et al.,* 2008:15)

The last section below, which discusses services, will focus on two frameworks for analysing the service encounter, namely so-called “servicescapes” and “servuction” methodologies. These methodologies are considered because they help to explain the nature of the service encounter between the customer and service provider.

3.4.4 Conceptual frameworks for analysing the service encounter

Services are fundamentally about processes and cannot be as easily judged or described as in the case of most tangible goods. According to Palmer (2008), this problem of defining the service encounter has given rise to methodologies such as servicescapes and servuction methodologies which “map” the service process. These two methodologies will be briefly described below.

3.4.4.1 Servicescapes

The servicescape concept was developed by Booms and Bitner to emphasise the effect of the environment in which the service takes place. Booms and Bitner (cited in Palmer, 2008:101) define a servicescape as “the environment in which the service is assembled and in which the seller and customer interact, combined with tangible commodities that facilitate performance or communication of the service”. In addition, Lamb *et al.* (2004) and Wilson *et al.* (2008) state that the servicescape is the physical environment in which the service is rendered or consumed. Bitner (1992) argues that the physical environment can influence both employee and customer behaviour and that the physical setting can also impact on employee satisfaction, motivation and productivity. The servicescape concept proposes that a variety of environmental factors are observed by both customers and employees and that both groups may respond emotionally and physiologically to the environment. These responses influence the behaviour of customers and employees and affect the interactions between them.

Owing to the fact that services are intangible, customers often depend on tangible cues or physical evidence to evaluate the service before it is purchased. Tangible cues or physical evidence may include elements such as lighting, floor plans, equipment and décor. Web pages and virtual servicescapes are more recent forms of physical evidence that organisations can use to communicate the service experience. Ultimately, the servicescape should encourage potential customers to enter the service environment and repeat their visit (Palmer, 2008). Figure 3.4 represents a framework that illustrates the role of the physical environment in service organisations.

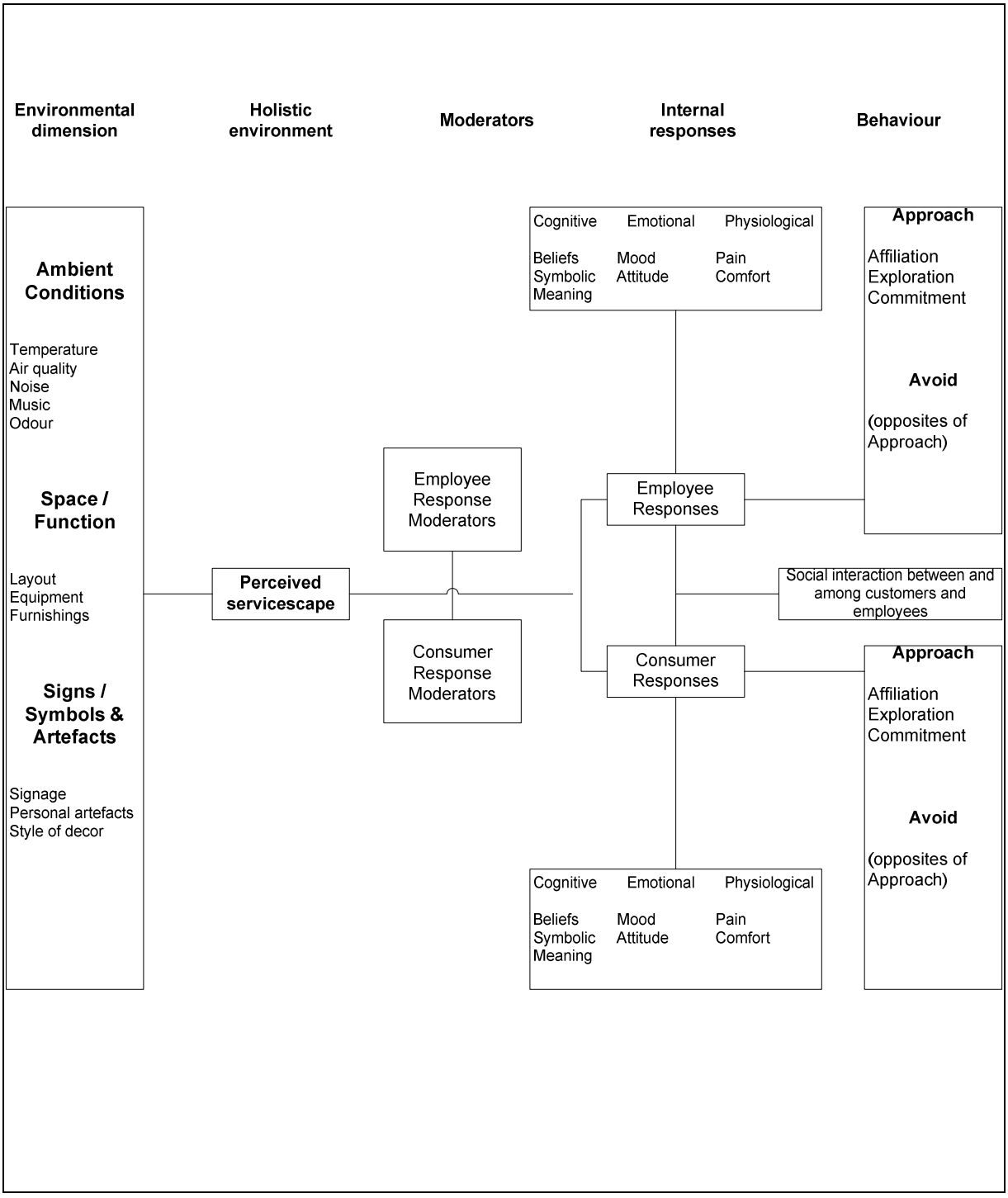

Figure 3.4: Framework for understanding environment-user relationships in service organisations

(Source: Adapted from Bitner, 1992:60)

The environment-user relationship is illustrated in figure 3.5, as discussed in the previous section.

The servicescape as a satisfaction model has been used in previous research, predominantly in the leisure and tourism field. Some of these studies include the development of a framework for the understanding of a tourism service setting (Abubakar, 2002), the role of the physical environment in service consumption at sporting events (Hightower, Brady & Baker, 2002) and the slot satisfaction in a Las Vegas hotel casino (Lucas, 2003).

3.4.4.2 Servuction

Servuction adopts a somewhat diverse perspective and concentrates on the customer's perception of the service encounter. The servuction framework, developed by Eiglier and Langeard, focuses on the experimental aspects of the service and is centred on the idea that organisations provide customers with complex bundles of benefits (Palmer, 2008). The service features are divided into two parts, namely visible and invisible. The visible parts include the physical environment in which the service experience occurs and service personnel who interact with the customer. The invisible part comprises the infrastructure to support the visible parts. The service experiences of customers are determined by content and process elements as well as structural elements, and in nonroutinised services, with many customers, content and process elements become extremely important. It is advisable to apply the servuction concept in service settings where there are high levels of input from fellow customers or third-party producers (Palmer, 2008). Ultimately, servuction is a description of the producer-consumer service production system (Davies, Barron & Harris, 1999; De´caudin & Lacoste, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Palmer, 2008; Swart, 2006).

The previous sections introduced quality, quality management and services as subthemes in this chapter. The following sections will focus on service quality, which is linked to the primary objective of this study, namely to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in the HE environment in South Africa, and more specifically, the PHE environment.

3.5 SERVICE QUALITY

3.5.1 Service quality defined

Prior to 1980, research on measuring quality emanated largely from the goods sector. Most definitions of service quality focused on the complexity for consumers to evaluate service quality, forming service quality expectations compared to the actual service delivery and the evaluation of quality in the "process" of service delivery as opposed to the "gaps" that exist in the perceptions and expectations in the delivery of quality service to customers (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985). Several definitions of service quality were presented in section 1.5.2 in chapter 1, based on the literature from 1990 to 2007. Following on these definitions, it was proposed that for the purpose of this study, service quality in PHE would be defined as "meeting and exceeding students' expectations and perceptions by constantly rendering a reliable service that conforms to predetermined requirements".

3.5.2 Service quality dimensions

Parasuraman *et al.* (1985; 1988) developed the SERVQUAL instrument as a means for the measurement of service quality. As indicated in chapter 1, section 1.5.2, the SERVQUAL instrument will be used to measure the quality of service at a PHE provider based on the difference between the students' expectations and perceptions (P-E) of service quality at a PHE campus. The SERVQUAL instrument will be discussed in detail in section 3.7.

In addition to the dimensions of the SERVQUAL instrument, Grönroos (1988) identified six criteria for acceptable perceived service quality. These are as follows:

- **Professionalism and skills**. The customers realise that the service provider, its employees, operational systems and physical resources have the knowledge and skills required to solve their problems professionally.

- **Attitudes and behaviour**. The customers feel that the contact personnel are concerned about them and are really interested in solving of their problems in a friendly manner.

- **Accessibility and flexibility.** The customers feel that the service provider, its location, operating hours, employees and operational systems are designed and operated so that they can easily gain access to the service that is flexible to their demands.

- **Reliability and trustworthiness**. The customers know that whatever takes place or has been agreed upon, they can rely on the service provider, the employees and systems to keep promises and perform with the best interests of the customers at heart.

- **Recovery**. The customers know that if something goes wrong, the service provider will vigorously take corrective action.

- **Reputation and credibility**. The customers believe that the service provider has sound values and can be trusted.

Section 3.7 will elaborate on the term “perceived quality” as part of the discussion of the service quality gaps (customer perceptions minus expectations regarding service quality).

In section 3.4 it was stated that organisations with similar product offerings can differentiate themselves through service delivery – not “what” is offered but “how” it is offered and that the “how” is what truly adds value to the customer. Grönroos (Prideaux *et al.*, 2006; Palmer, 2008) argues that service quality consists of two fundamental concepts, namely technical and functional quality. Technical quality refers to the “what” that is delivered. This is easily measured and is essential for evaluating the quality of service. Functional quality is “how” the service is rendered and is not as easily

measured as technical quality. The concepts of technical quality and functional quality will be elaborated on in section 3.6 as part of the evaluation of the Grönroos quality model.

Figure 3.5 depicts the five service quality dimensions, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. All of these service quality dimensions are briefly discussed in sections 3.5.2.1 to 3.5.2.5.

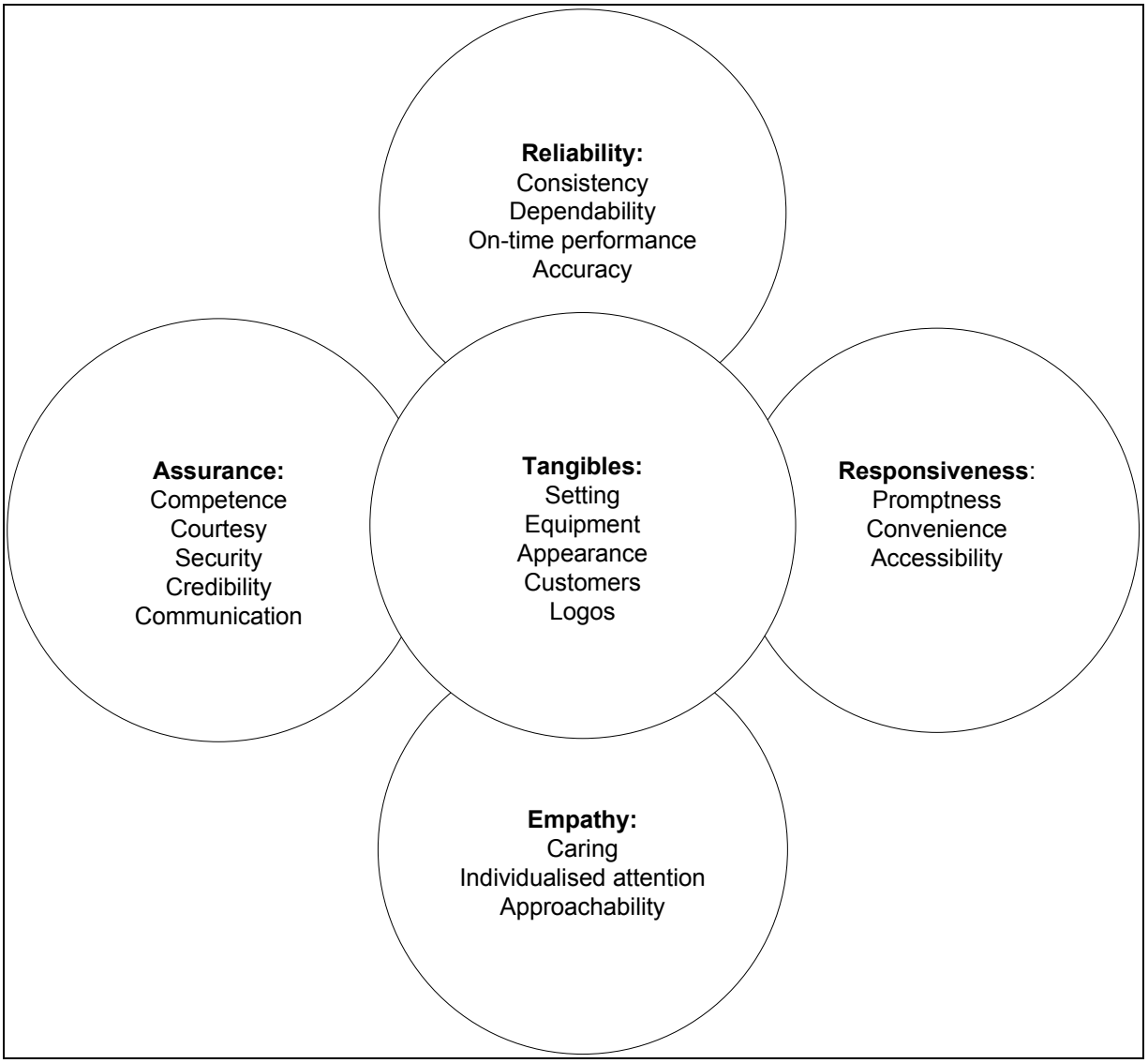

Figure 3.5: The five service quality dimensions

(Source: Getz, 1997:177)

3.5.2.1 Tangibles

Tangibility was previously mentioned as one of the characteristics of services in section 3.4.3. However, it is also one of the service quality dimensions in the SERVQUAL instrument and refers to the service provider's physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials (Kotler, 2000; Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

3.5.2.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the ability of the service provider to do what it promises and perform the service dependably and accurately (Kotler, 2000; Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

3.5.2.3 Responsiveness

Responsiveness is the willingness and determination of the service provider to help the customers and provide quick services (Alzola & Robaina, 2005; Kotler, 2000; Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

3.5.2.4 Assurance

Assurance or security is the knowledge and courtesy of the service provider's personnel and their ability to inspire trust, confidence and credibility in the customers (Alzola & Robaina, 2005; Kotler, 2000; Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

3.5.2.5 Empathy

This is the individualised attention and care that the service provider offers to its customers (Alzola & Robaina, 2005; Kotler, 2000; Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).
Service quality and its dimensions will be discussed in more detail in section 3.7, which focuses on the SERVQUAL instrument.

3.5.3 The importance of service quality

The primary objective of this study, as stated in chapter 1, was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. The impact of leadership as the independent variable on service quality as the dependent variable was thus investigated. The following sections deal with the importance of service quality.

As mentioned in sections 3.4 and 3.5.1, it was only after the 1980s that organisations started to investigate service quality as a form of differentiation and competitive advantage. Since then, service quality has been the basis for success across various industries, and organisations acknowledge that it enhances competitiveness by differentiating in terms of service quality. According to Wilson *et al.* (2008), strategies that focus on customer satisfaction, high returns and service quality may actually be more successful than those that focus on cost cutting only. In addition, Lamb *et al.* (2004) and Seth *et al.* (2005) state that many organisations have realised that because their competitors offer similar quality products and similar prices, the only means to differentiate is to offer superior service. Not only is excellent service quality difficult to emulate, but it is also a vital buying consideration for many customers. Service quality is becoming increasingly important because of factors such as the opening up of markets as well as the increased use of information technology and higher levels of customer knowledge (Seth *et al.,* 2005).

According to Lewis (2007), a lack of focus on service quality could lead to problems such as customer and employee complaints as well as other related costs. A service quality programme can have beneficial results such as an enhanced corporate image, reduced costs, increased productivity, sales and market share as well as overall improved business performance. Dale *et al.* (2007) agree and report that service quality improvements can be linked to improved revenue, which in turn can lead to higher profit margins. Similarly, Foster (2010) states that service quality is one of the major differentiating factors to beat competitors in the market.

The importance of service quality was highlighted in the section above. In addition, Prideaux *et al.* (2006) state that customers who are dissatisfied with the quality of service, will take their business elsewhere and these dissatisfied customers are likely to discuss their dissatisfaction with many people, which in turn could damage the organisation's credibility. Dale *et al.* (2007:18) concur and emphasise the following customer service facts which indicate the significance of service quality for the sustainability for any organisation:

- If 20 customers are dissatisfied with your service, 19 will not tell you. Fourteen of the 20 will take their business elsewhere.
- Dissatisfied customers tell an average of ten other people about their bad experience, whereas 12% tell up to 20 people.
- Satisfied customers will tell an average of five people about their positive experience.
- It costs five times more money to attract a new customer than to retain an existing one.
- Up to 90% of dissatisfied customers will not buy from you again, and they will not tell you why.
- In many industries, service quality is one of the few variables that can distinguish a business from its competition.
- Providing top-quality service can save your business money. The same skills that lead to increased customer satisfaction also lead to increased employee productivity.
- Customers are willing to pay more to receive better service.
- Of dissatisfied customers, 95% will become loyal customers again if their complaints are handled well and quickly.

As mentioned by Dale *et al.* (2007) in the previous section, there is a direct link between enhanced service quality and high profit margins. Research by the Harvard Business School explains the service-profit chain. It indicates a link between internal service and employee satisfaction to customer value and ultimately to profits (Wilson *et al.,* 2008).

The proposed service-profit chain that links improvements in service quality to increased profits is depicted in figure 3.6 below.

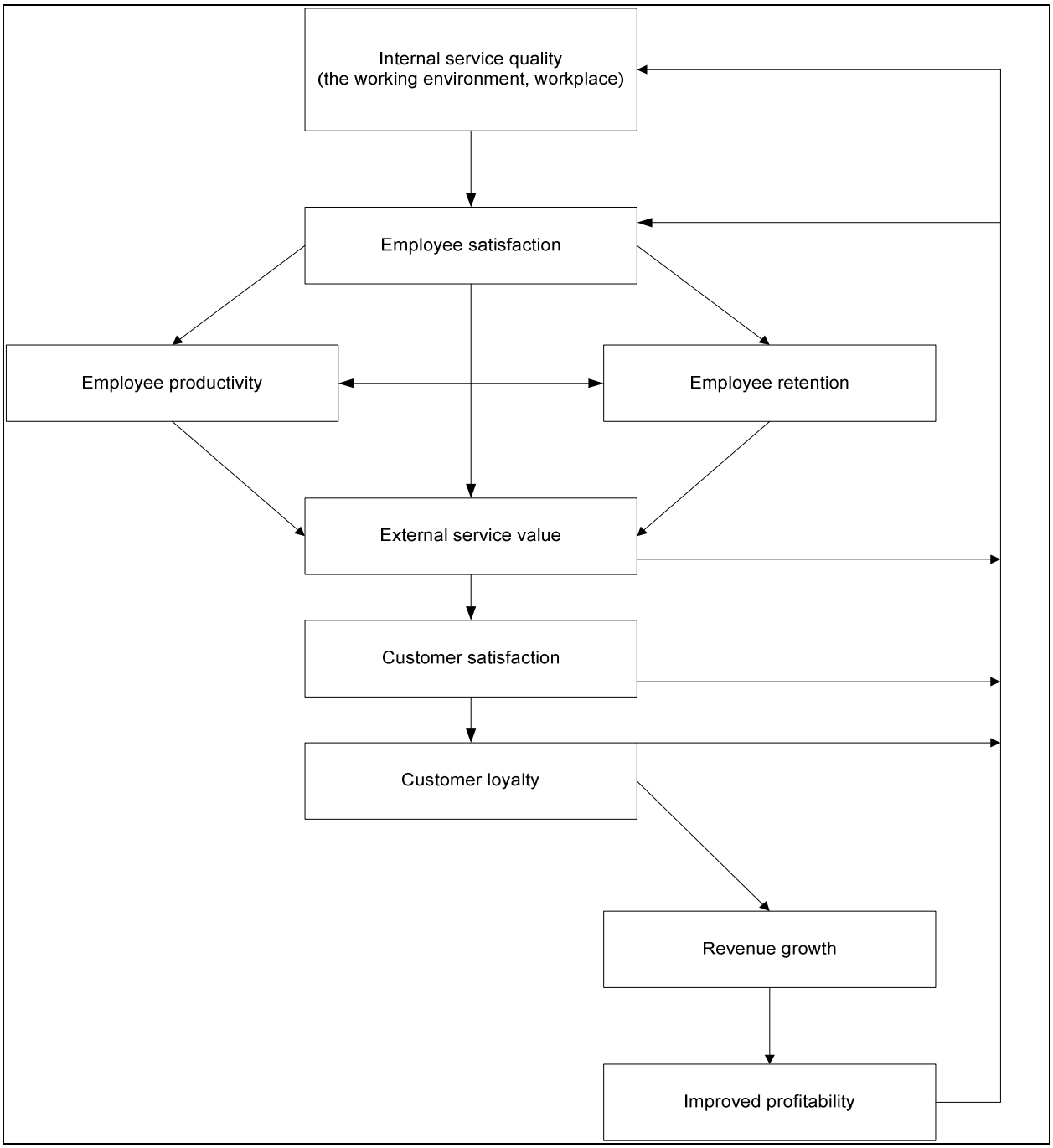

Figure 3.6: The service-profit chain

(Source: Palmer, 2008:324)

The previous sections focused on the importance of increased service quality as well as some of the benefits such as a better corporate image and improved profits. However, one needs to know about the so-called “cut-off” point where service quality improvements are no longer profitable. Palmer (2008) poses the following question: How far should an organisation go to improve its levels of service quality? The simple answer is, as far as the customer is willing to pay for the improved service quality. Figure 3.7 shows a cut-off point where the service provider should stop its quality improvement efforts.

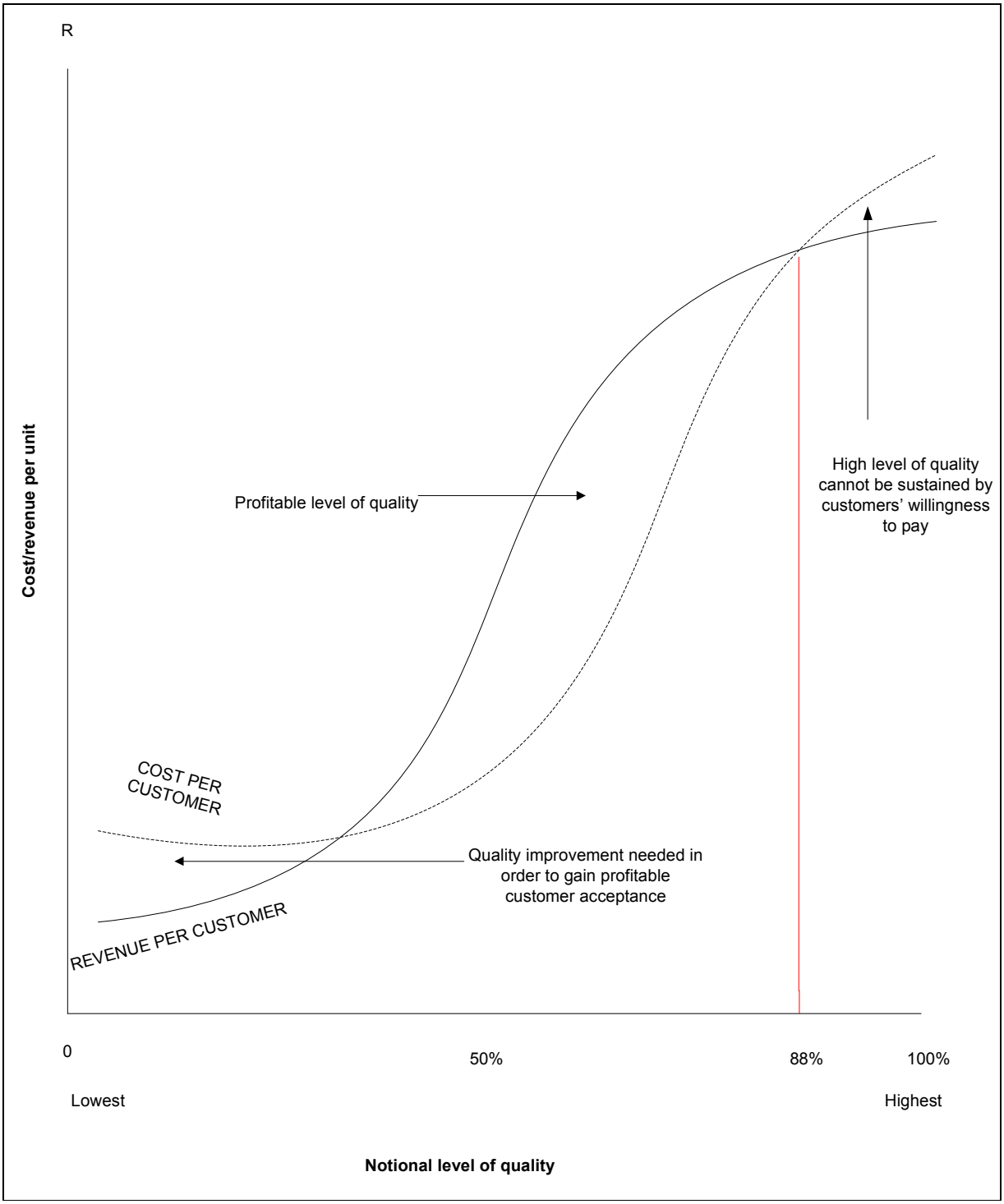

Figure 3.7: Cut-off point of service quality improvements

(Source: Adapted from Palmer, 2008:340)

The service provider must have a clear understanding of its market and customers' willingness to pay extra for increased levels of service quality. Figure 3.8 shows that if an organisation increases its notional level of service quality, there is an expected increase in the amount that customers are willing to pay for the service. However, it is evident that above a notional level of 88%, the cost of providing the service becomes more than what the customer is willing to pay.

According to Palmer (2008), even though this is a simple example of reality, it shows that total quality is not always the most profitable and that a thorough knowledge of markets is required to establish the ideal level of service quality. In addition, Wilson *et al.* (2008) state the unfortunate fact that many managers still see service quality improvements as an unnecessary expense instead of a factor that actually contributes to profits. The reason for this is that, much like advertising results, the results from service quality improvements are cumulative and are thus only evident in the long term.

The next section will focus on various service quality models that could possibly be applied in a PHE environment to measure the quality of service. A review of all existing models of service quality is beyond the scope of this study.

3.6 SERVICE QUALITY MODELS

According to Seth *et al.* (2005), service quality models should assist management to identify quality problems and help in the planning of a quality improvement programme, thereby improving effectiveness and overall business performance. The primary purpose of these models is to enable management to improve the organisation and its service offering. Seth *et al.* (2005) have investigated several service quality models and suggest that the following factors are suitable for comparative evaluations of these models:

- The model should identify factors affecting service quality.
- The model should be suitable for a variety of service settings.

- The model should be flexible to account for changes in the environment and in customer perceptions.
- The model should clearly indicate directions for the improvement of service quality.
- The model should be able to develop a link for the measurement of customer satisfaction.
- There should be a clear indication for the need to train and educate employees.
- The model should suggest suitable measures for improvements of service quality.
- It should be able to accommodate the use of IT in services.
- The model should be able to be used as a tool for benchmarking.

The following sections will describe and compare eight specific service quality models that could be applied in a PHE environment to measure the quality of service. The service quality models will be abbreviated as SQ1 to SQ8 for easier reference to the tables at the end of this section.

3.6.1 Technical and functional quality model (SQ1)

For an organisation to compete successfully, it needs to have a sound understanding of the customer's perception of service quality. To manage perceived service quality, the organisation must be able to match service expectations and perceptions to achieve customer satisfaction. The model identifies three components of service quality, namely technical quality, functional quality and image. Technical quality is what the customer receives as a result of the interaction with the service organisation; functional quality is the way in which the customer receives the technical quality; and image is important to service providers and it comprises mainly technical and functional service quality (Seth *et al.*, 2005). Figure 3.8 depicts the technical and functional quality model.

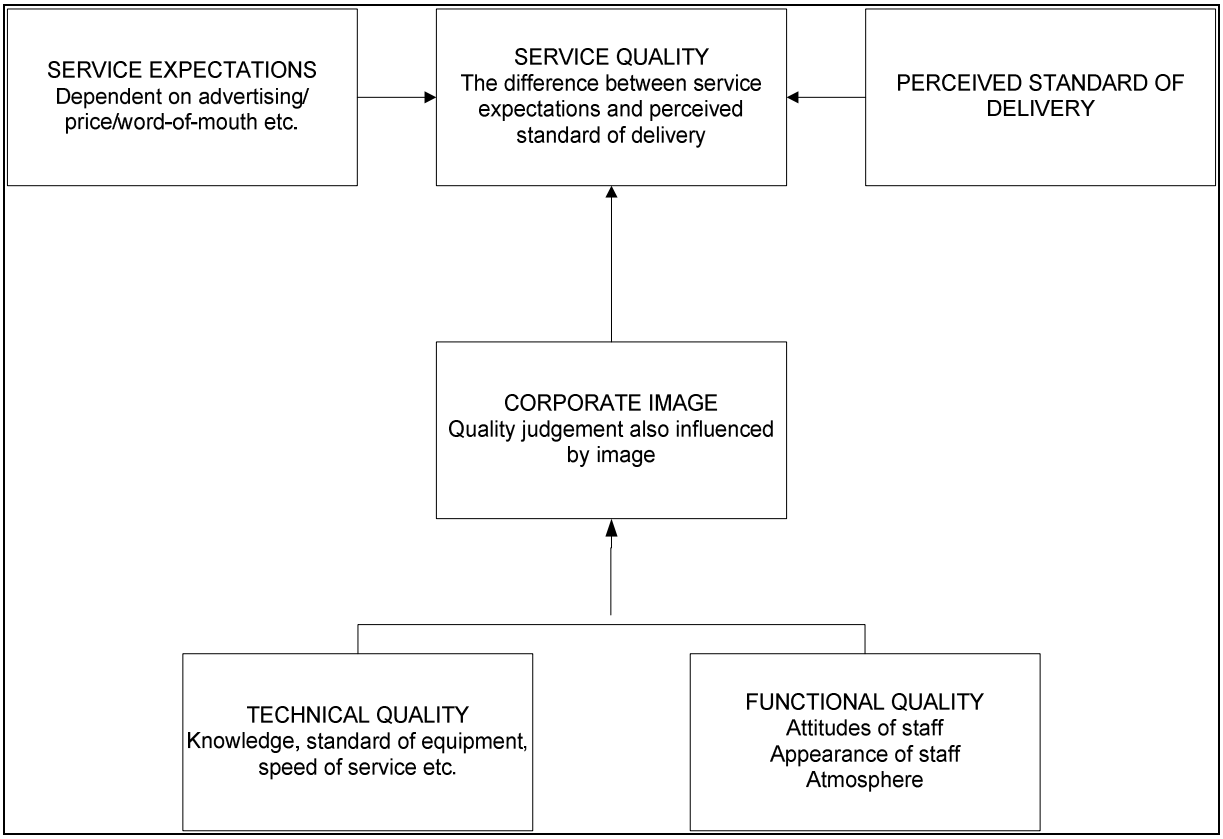

Figure 3.8: Consumers' perception of technical and functional quality

(Source: Adapted from Palmer, 2008:322)

Figure 3.8 is a visual representation of how technical and functional quality contributes to an organisation's corporate image. In addition, corporate image is one of the components of service quality which is described as the difference between the customer's expectation and perception with regard to service quality.

3.6.2 The gap model (SQ2)

The gap model was developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) and it proposes that service quality is a function of the differences between the expectation and perception of customers in terms of service delivery. Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) developed the service quality model (figure 3.9), known as SERVQUAL, based on gap analysis, and identified the following gaps:

- gap 1: the difference between consumers' expectation and management's perceptions of those expectations
- gap 2: the difference between management's perceptions of consumers' expectations and service quality specifications
- gap 3: the difference between service quality specifications and the actual service delivered
- gap 4: the difference between service delivery and the external communications to consumers about service delivery
- gap 5: the difference between consumers' expectation and perception of the service; this gap depends on the size of the first four gaps relating to service delivery

The gap model, also referred to as SERVQUAL, is the service quality measuring instrument that was applied in this study, and will be discussed in more detail in section 3.7.

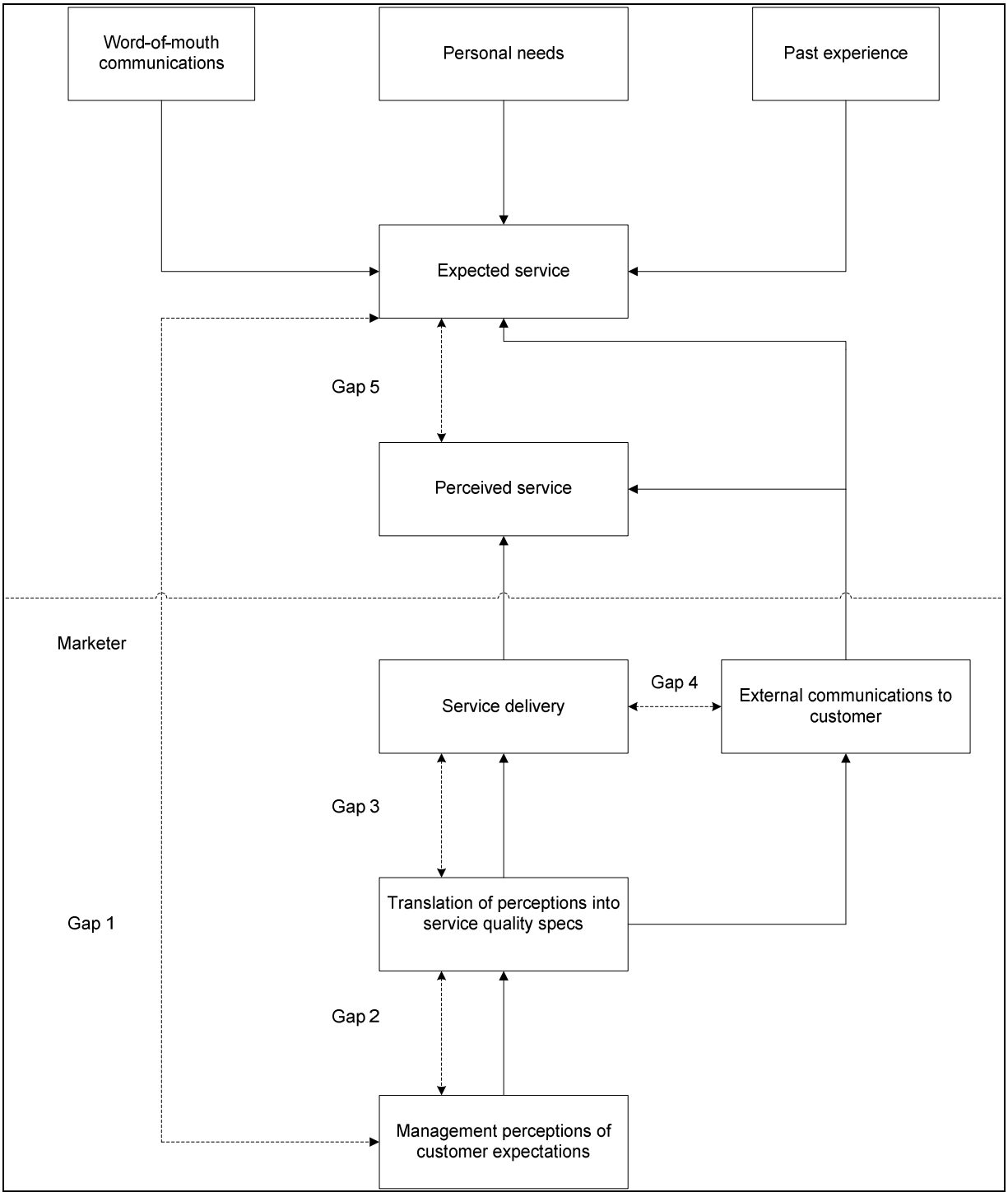

Figure 3.9: Gaps and the service quality model

(Source: Adapted from Foster, 2010:165)

3.6.3 Attribute service quality model (SQ3)

This model (depicted in figure 3.10) indicates that “high quality” in a service setting is experienced when an organisation consistently meets customer preferences and expectations. The separation of certain features into various groups is the first step towards the development of a service quality model. Services have the following three basic features: physical facilities and processes, people’s behaviour and professional judgement. The model maps different service settings as per degree of contact and interaction, degree of labour intensity and degree of service customisation. The suitable quality balance will be near the centre of the triangle in figure 3.10, where physical facilities and processes, people’s behaviour and professional judgement are all important, but none is stressed at the expense of any other group of quality features (Haywood-Farmer, 1988).

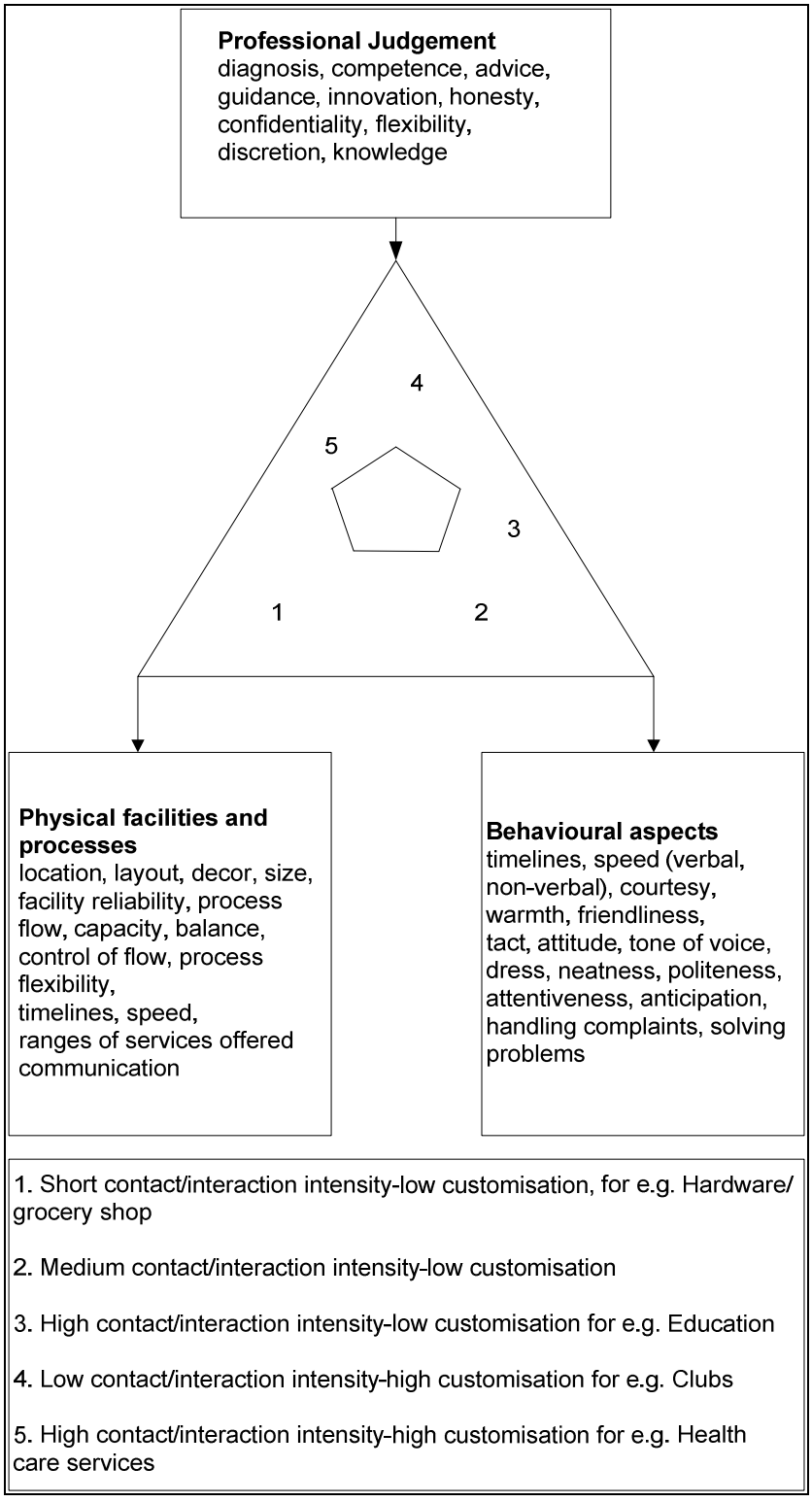

Figure 3.10: Attribute service quality model

(Source: Seth *et al*., 2005:919)

3.6.4 Synthesised model of service quality (SQ4)

This model attempts to incorporate traditional managerial structure, service design and operations and marketing activities. The purpose is to identify the dimensions relating to service quality in a traditional managerial framework of planning, implementation and control. The synthesised model of service quality (figure 3.11) considers three factors, namely company image, external influences and traditional marketing activities as the factors that have an impact on technical and functional quality expectations (Brogowicz, Delene & Lyth, 1990).

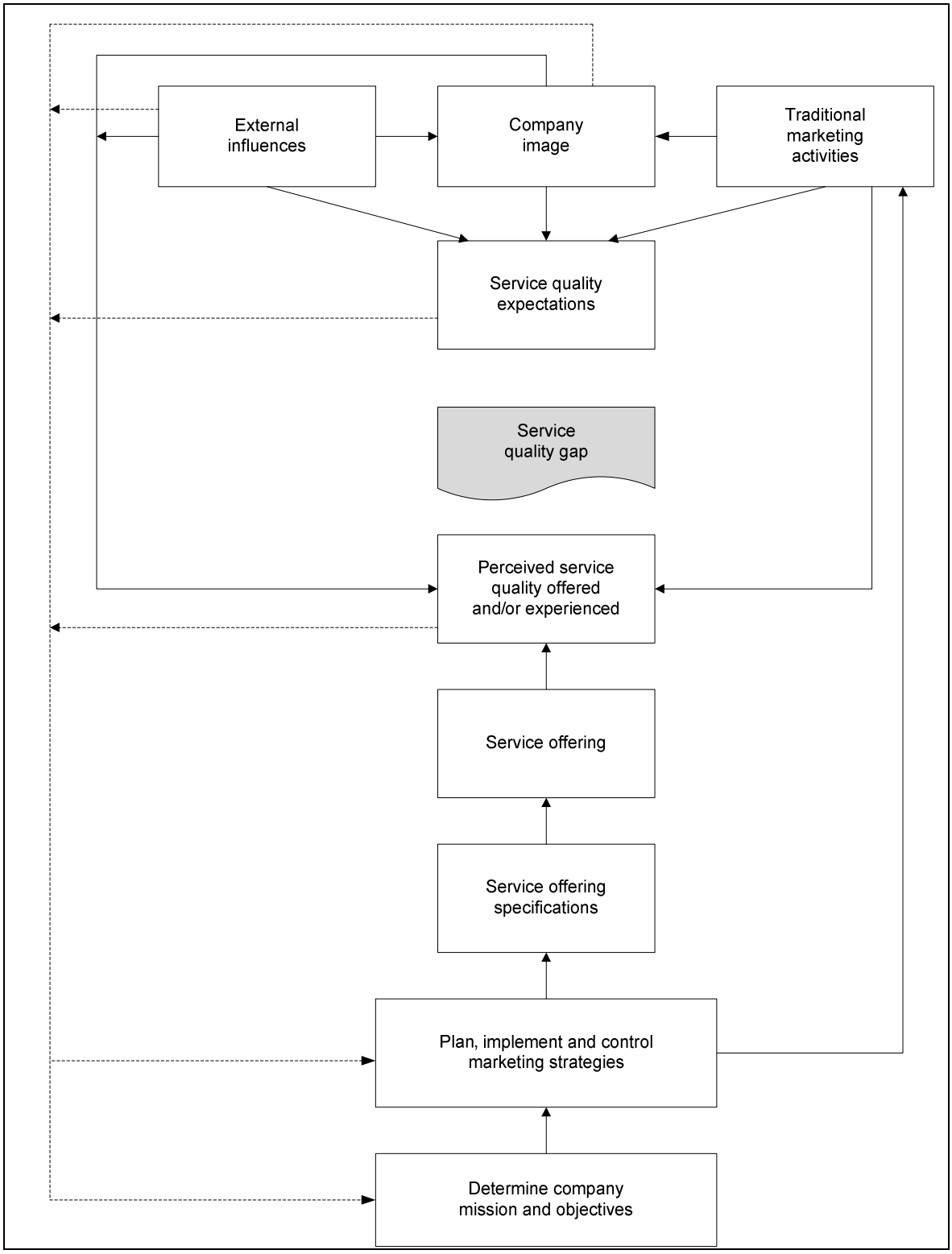

Figure 3.11: A synthesised service quality model

(Source: Brogowicz *et al*., 1990:36)

3.6.5 Performance only model (SQ5)

This model was developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992) who investigated service quality in relation to customer satisfaction and purchase intentions. The study concluded that "perceptions only" are a better predictor of service quality. It was argued that the gap model developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) confused satisfaction and attitude. In addition, Cronin and Taylor (1992) stated that quality can be conceptualised as being comparable to an attitude and can be measured by the perceptions only model referred to as SERVPERF. According to Cronin and Taylor (1992), performance instead of "performance-expectation" determines service quality.

3.6.6 Ideal value model of service quality (SQ6)

In most studies on service quality, expectation is regarded as the preferred outcome of the service experience. Mattsson (1992) argues that this needs to be investigated in the light of other standards such as experience based or ideal, minimum-tolerable and desirable. This model suggests a value approach to service quality as an outcome of satisfaction process. The value-based model of service quality recommends that a perceived ideal standard should be used to compare it to the service experience. Figure 3.12 illustrates that negative disconfirmation at a preconscious value level determines satisfaction at a "higher" attitude level. The negative disconfirmation is the main determining factor of customer satisfaction. Hence more attention should be paid to the cognitive processes of how customers' service concepts are formed and changed (Mattsson, 1992).

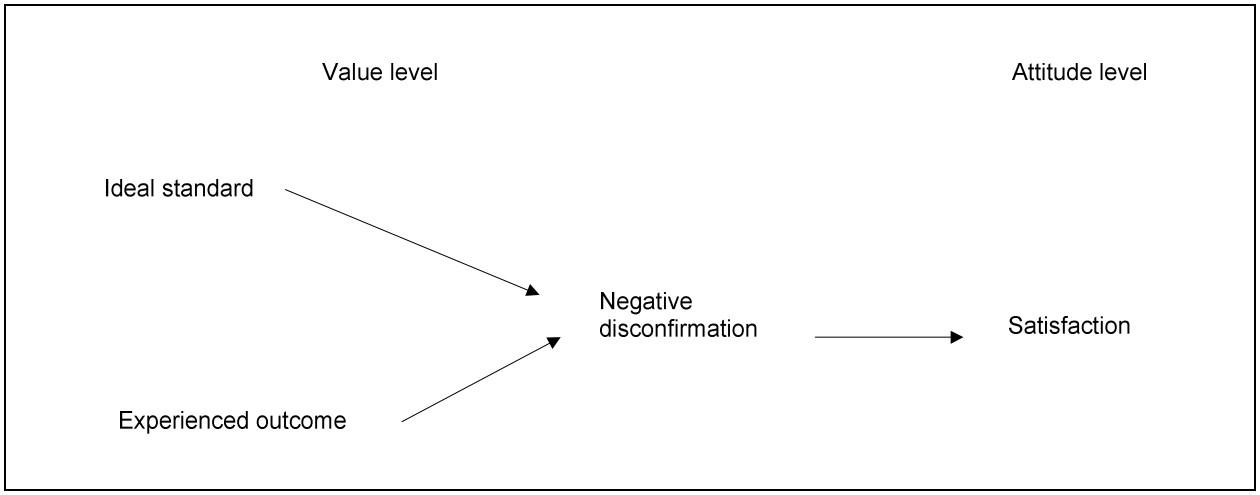

Figure 3.12: Ideal value model

(Source: Mattsson, 1992:19)

3.6.7 Model of perceived service quality and satisfaction (SQ7)

This model (figure 3.13) endeavours to improve the understanding of the concepts of perceived service quality and consumer satisfaction. The model focuses on the effect of expectations, perceived performance desires, desired congruency and expectation disconfirmation on overall service quality and customer satisfaction. These are measured through a set of the following ten elements of advising (Spreng & Mackoy, 1996):

- convenience in making an appointment
- the friendliness of the staff
- the advisor listened to my questions
- the advisor provided accurate information
- the knowledge of the advisor
- the advice was consistent
- the advisor helped with long-range planning
- the advisor helped to choose the right options
- the advisor was interested in my personal life
- the offices were professional

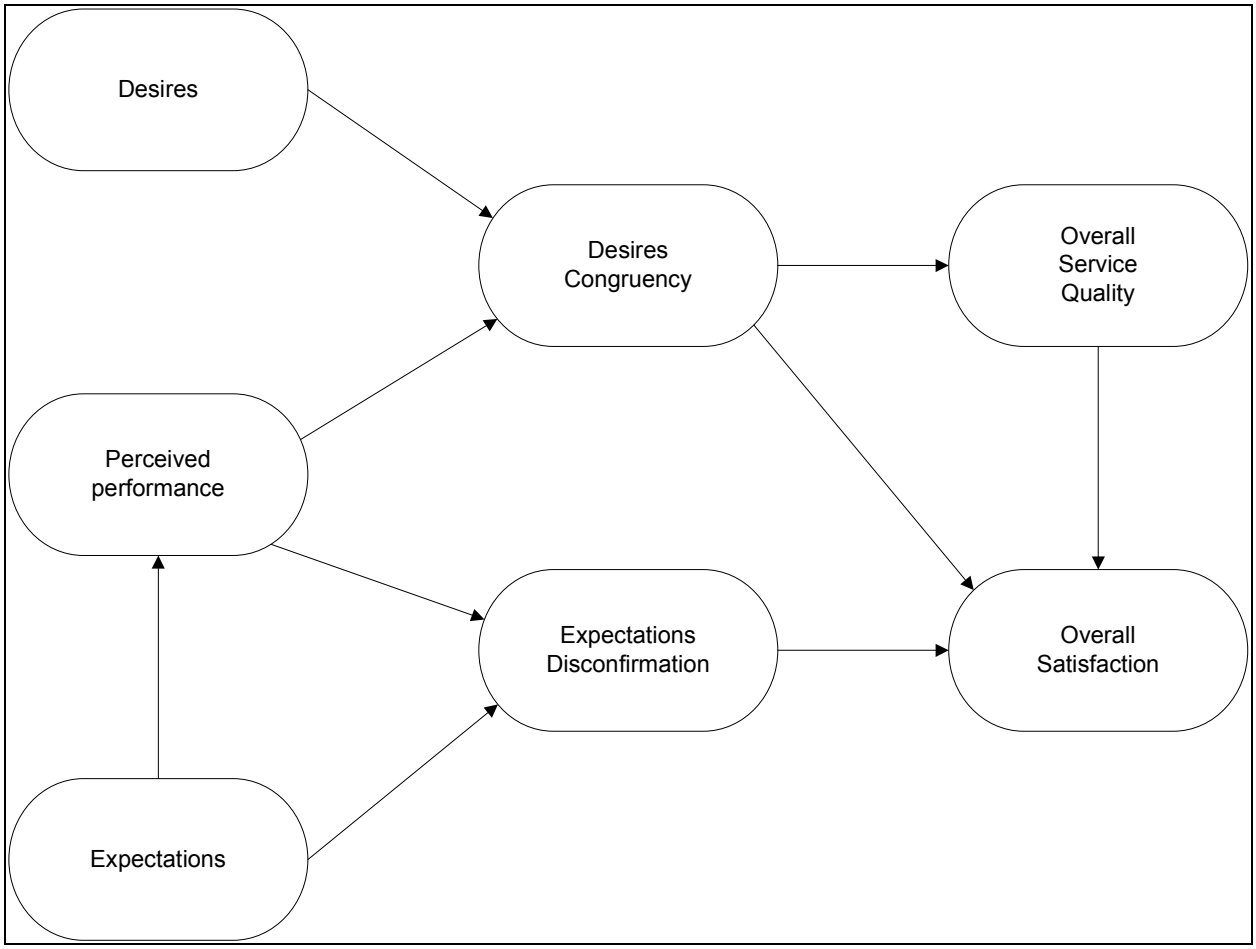

Figure 3.13: Perceived quality and satisfaction model

(Source: Spreng & Mackoy, 1996:209)

3.6.8 PCP attribute model (SQ8)

This model has a hierarchical structure based on three main features or classes, namely pivotal (outputs), core and peripheral (inputs and processes). According to the model (figure 3.14), every service consists of these three features. Pivotal features, positioned at the core, are the determining factors why the customer purchased the service and have the greatest impact on customer satisfaction. Pivotal features are referred to as the "output" of the service encounter. Core features are the people, processes and structures through which the customer receives the pivotal features. The peripheral features can be seen as the "extras" which make the service encounter more delightful. The customer is satisfied if the pivotal features are received. However, as a service is used more frequently, the core and peripheral features become increasingly important (Philip & Hazlett, 1997).

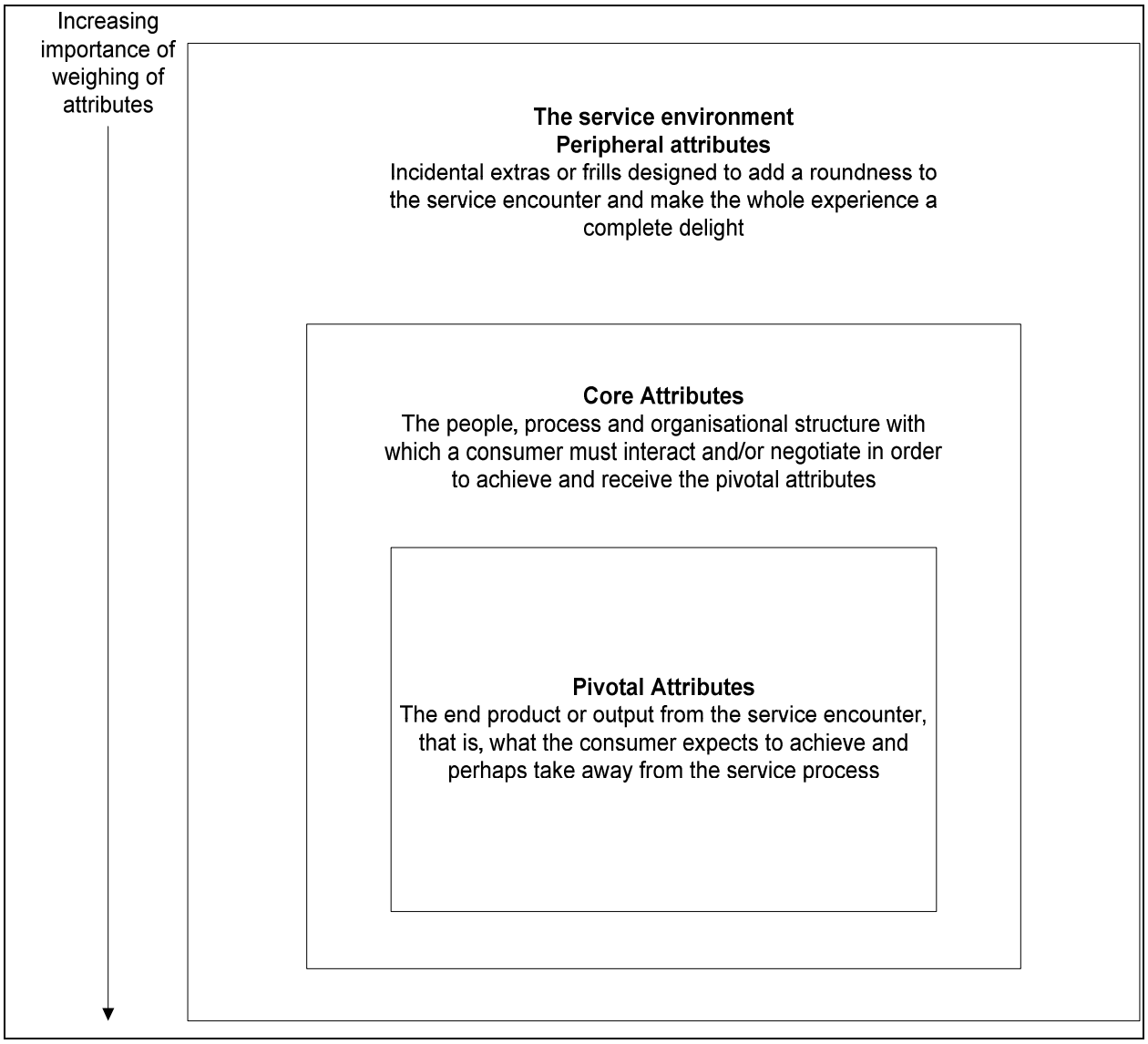

Figure 3.14: PCP attribute model

(Source: Adapted from Seth *et al*., 2005:926)

3.6.9 Summary and comparison of service quality models

This section summarises and compares the eight models discussed in the previous section in terms of their limitations (table 3.6) and categorisation and salient features (table 3.7). Table 3.8 evaluates and compares the eight models on the basis of the factors used to compare service quality models, as indicated in the first paragraph in section 3.6.

Table 3.6: Limitations of service quality models

Model no./type	Select weaknesses/limitations
SQ1: Technical and functional quality model	The model does not offer an explanation on how to measure functional and technical quality.
SQ2: Gap model	Exploratory study. The model does not explain the clear measurement procedure for the measurement of gaps at different levels.
SQ3: Attribute service quality model	It does not offer the measurement of service quality. It does not offer a practical procedure capable of helping management to identify service quality problems or practical means of improving service quality.
SQ4: Synthesised model of service quality	Needs empirical validation. Needs to be reviewed for different type of service settings.
SQ5: Performance only model	Needs to be generalised for all types of service settings. Quantitative relationship between consumer satisfaction and service quality needs to be established.
SQ6: Ideal value model of service quality	Fewer number of items used for value and customer satisfaction. Needs to be defined for all types of service settings.
SQ7: Model of perceived quality and satisfaction	The model does not highlight how the service quality is achieved and operationalised. The model is weak in providing directions for improvements in service quality.
SQ8: PCP attribute model	The model fails to provide general dimensions to three levels of attributes. Lacks empirical validation.

(Source: Adapted from Seth *et al*., 2005:935-937)

Table 3.7: Categorisation and salient features of the service quality models

Model no.	Author (year)	Model	Respondents	Method of data collection	Scale used	Method of analysis	Measurement of service quality addressed through
SQ2	Parasura-man *et al*. (1985)	Gap model	Ranged from 298 to 487 across companies/ telephone companies, securities brokerage, insurance companies, banks and repair and maintenance	Survey question-naire approach	Seven-point Likert	Principal-axis factor followed by oblique rotation	* * Ten dimensions (reliability, security, responsiveness access, communication, tangibles, courtesy, credibility, competence, understanding/ knowing)
SQ3 *	Haywood-Farmer (1988)	Attribute service quality model		*	*	Analysis not reported	Physical facilities and processes, people's behaviour and conviviality, professional judgement
SQ4 *	Brogowicz *et al*. (1990)	Synthe-sised model of service quality		*	*	Analysis not reported	Through technical and functional quality defining planning, implementation and control tasks
SQ5	Cronin & Taylor (1992)	Perfor-mance only model	660/banking, pest control, dry-cleaning and fast-food	Survey question-naire approach	Seven-point semantic differential	Principal-axis factor followed by oblique rotation and LISREL Confirmatory	22 items same as SERVQUAL but with performance only statements
SQ6	Mattsson (1992)	Ideal value model	40 guests while checking in and out/two large luxury hotels	Survey questionnaire approach	Seven-point Likert	Pearson moment correlation, pairwise intra- and intersample median test and Chi square test	Through 18 items of value and nine items of customer satisfaction
SQ7	Spreng & Mackoy (1996)	Perceived quality and satisfaction model	273 undergraduate students	Survey questionnaire approach	Seven-point Likert	Factor analysis and structured equation modeling using	Through desires, perceived performance, expectations and desired congruency (each comprising ten

						LISREL	attributes)
SQ8 *	Philip & Hazlett (1997)	PCP attribute model		*	*	Analysis not reported	Pivotal attributes, core attributes and peripheral attributes

Notes: *Mainly conceptual models, not tested/validated; * *later in 1988 and 1991 the authors proposed and revised the 22-item, five-dimension service quality measurement tool SERVQUAL.

(Source: Adapted from Seth *et al*., 2005:940-942)

Table 3.8: Evaluation of service quality models

Items	SQ1	SQ2	SQ3*	SQ4*	SQ5	SQ6	SQ7	SQ8*
Identification of factors affecting service quality	♦	♦		♦	♦	♦	♦	♦
Suitability for variety of services in consideration	♦	♦	♦		♦			
Flexibility to account for changing nature of customers' perceptions	♦			♦				♦
Directions for improvement in service quality	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦
Suitability for developing a link for measurement of customer satisfaction					♦	♦	♦	
Diagnosing the needs for training and education of employees		♦		♦	♦			
Flexible enough for modifications as per the changes in the environment/conditions		♦	♦		♦			♦

Suggests suitable measures for improvements of service quality both upstream and downstream in the organisation in focus		♦		♦	♦		♦	♦
Identifies future needs (infrastructure, resources) and thus provides help in planning				♦				♦
Accommodates use of IT in services								
Capability of being used as a tool for benchmarking	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦	♦		♦

Note: *conceptual model

(Source: Adapted from Seth *et al*.:943)

From this review it seems clear that there is not a universally accepted service quality model or a clear operational definition of how to measure service quality. However, the majority of service quality models support the notion that service quality is measured by comparing the customer's service quality expectation with the service quality perception or experience. Furthermore, the SERVQUAL instrument seems to have the most support in the service quality research field (Seth *et al.,* 2005).

As indicated in table 3.8, on the basis of the factors used to compare service quality models, the gap model (SQ2) or SERVQUAL and the performance only model (SQ5) or SERVPERF seem to be the most suitable models to evaluate service quality. These two models will be explained below.

3.7 SERVQUAL

As indicated in chapter 1, section 1.5.2, the SERVQUAL instrument was used to conduct this study. In this section, the SERVQUAL instrument will be examined in more detail and its application in this study justified. Mention will also be made of

possible applications of the SERVQUAL instrument. The section will conclude with reference to an HE-specific service quality measurement instrument, namely HEdPERF and the exclusion of this instrument from this study will be justified. A comparison between SERVQUAL and SERVPERF in an HE environment will also be provided. The development of the SERVQUAL instrument by Parasuraman *et al*. (1985) will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5, which deals with the research design. The focus will be on SERVQUAL's data collection process, the generation of the instrument's scale items and scale purification as well as its validity, reliability and factor structure.

3.7.1 The history of SERVQUAL

According to Parasuraman *et al.* (1985), prior to 1980, research on measuring quality emanated largely from the goods sector. Despite the growth in the services sector, only a few researchers focused on service quality. There were also on-going debates on the extent to which service marketing was different from goods marketing. The characteristics of services (intangibility, inseparability, perishability and heterogeneity) as listed in section 3.4.3, were a result from these debates. The research conducted on service quality (prior to 1985) suggested the following three themes: (1) service quality is more difficult to evaluate than goods quality; (2) service quality perceptions are a result of a comparison between the expectations of the consumer and the actual service performance; and (3) the process of service delivery is also important in the evaluation of service quality.

The first statements of the SERVQUAL instrument were published in 1985 by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry and officially introduced in 1988. The original SERVQUAL instrument consisted of ten dimensions based on the exploratory research by Parasuraman *et al.* in 1985. These dimensions included tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, communication, credibility, security, competence, courtesy, understanding/knowing the customer and access. Table 3.9 provides a detailed description of the original ten dimensions. Additional research, data collection and scale purification by Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) led to the design of a five-dimensional SERVQUAL scale consisting of the following dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985,

1988). Since then, their research has dominated the field of research in service quality.

Table 3.9: Original dimensions of SERVQUAL

Tangibles	Include physical evidence of the service – physical facilities – appearance of personnel – tools or equipment used to provide the service – physical representations of the service, such as a plastic credit card or a bank statement – other customers in the service facility
Reliability	Involves consistency of performance and dependability. It means that the firm performs the service right the first time. It also means that the firm honours its promises. Specifically, it involves – accuracy in billing – keeping records correctly – performing the service at the designated time
Responsiveness	Concerns the willingness or readiness of employees to provide the service. It involves – timelines of service – mailing a transaction slip immediately – calling the customer back quickly – giving prompt service (e.g. setting up appointments quickly)
Communication	Means keeping customers informed in a language they can understand and listening to them. It may mean that the company has to adjust its language for different consumers – increasing the sophistication with a well-educated customer and speaking simply and plainly with a novice. It involves – explaining the service itself – explaining how much the service will cost – explaining the trade-offs between service and cost – assuring the customer that a problem will be handled

Credibility	Involves trustworthiness, believability and honesty. It involves having the customer's best interest at heart. Contributing to credibility are – company name – company reputation – personal characteristics of contact personnel – the degree of hard sell involved in interactions with the customer
Security	Is there freedom from danger, risk or doubt? It involves – physical safety (Will I be mugged at the automatic teller machine?) – financial security (Does the company know where my stock certificate is?) – confidentiality (Are my dealings with the company private?)
Competence	Means possession of the required skills and knowledge to perform the service. It involves – knowledge and skill of the contact personnel – knowledge and skill of the operational support personnel – research capability of the organisation (e.g. securities brokerage firm)
Courtesy	Involves politeness, respect, consideration, and friendliness of contact personnel (including receptionists, telephone operators, etc). It includes – consideration for the consumer's property (e.g. no muddy shoes on the carpet) – clean and neat appearance of public contact personnel
Understanding/knowing the customer	Involves making the effort to understand the customer's needs. It involves – learning the customer's specific requirements – providing individualised attention – recognising the regular customer
Access	Involves approachability and ease of contact. It means – the service is easily assessable by telephone (lines are not busy and customers are not put on hold)

	– waiting time to receive service (e.g. at a bank) is not extensive – convenient hours of operation – convenient location of service facility

(Source: Adapted from Foster, 2010:164)

The detail provided in table 3.9 leads up to the next section, which elaborates on the updated five dimensions of SERVQUAL as applied in this study.

3.7.2 The SERVQUAL instrument

Section 3.7.2 will focus on the SERVQUAL instrument, including the development of the service quality scale, the updated five dimensions, how it is applied as well as some of its advantages.

The steps in the development of the service quality scale are illustrated in figure 3.15.

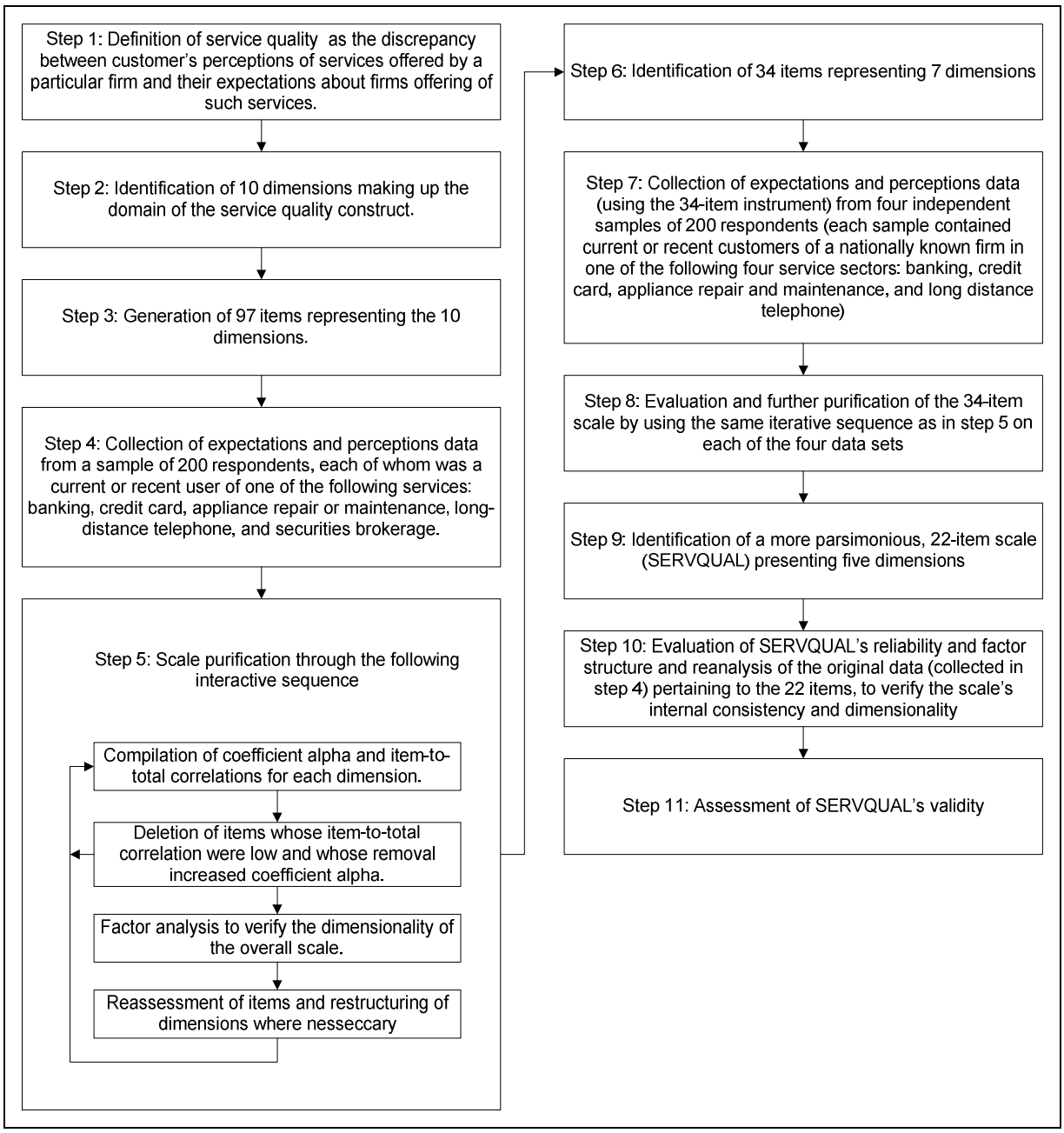

Figure 3.15: Summary of the steps in developing the service quality scale
(Source: Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988:14)

Section 1 categorises the domain of the service quality construct and describes the generation of the items as indicated in steps 1, 2 and 3. The second section consists of steps 4 to 9 and presents the data collection and scale purification procedures. The third section (step 10) provides an evaluation of the scale's reliability and factor structure, while the last section (step 11) consists of the assessment of the scale's validity (Parasuraman *et al*., 1988). This will be elaborated on in chapter 5.

In accordance with the primary objective of this study, the SERVQUAL instrument was used in the form developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) and was applied to a PHE provider in South Africa. The original 22 statements were adapted to the context of the PHE provider.

According to Parasuraman *et al.* (1988), the SERVQUAL instrument measures service quality (perceived quality) as conceptualised in the service literature. Exploratory research by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) indicates that service quality is an overall evaluation, attitude or judgement. Perceived quality is therefore the customer's evaluation or judgement of a service provider's overall excellence or superiority of the service and is a result of the comparison between expectations and perceptions of performance. Expectations are viewed as the "desires" or "wants" of the customer, that is, what he or she feels the service provider *should* offer as opposed to *would* offer. Many researchers support the concept that perceived service quality originates from a comparison between what the customers feel the service provider should offer and their perceptions of the service rendered (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988).

Parasuraman *et al.*'s (1985) research in the development of the SERVQUAL instrument included 12 focus group interviews with current or recent customers of four different services, including retail banking, credit card, securities brokerage and product repair and maintenance. The focus group discussions centred on issues such as the meaning of service quality, the characteristics of the service and its provider and the criteria used by customers to evaluate service quality. Irrespective of the type of service, the findings revealed that customers used basically the same general criteria to evaluate service quality (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988).

As indicated previously, it is suggested that service quality is determined by the difference between what a customer expects and the perceived level of service delivery. The SERVQUAL instrument is composed of the five service quality dimensions, as discussed in section 3.5.2, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The instrument is based on 22 generic questions and designed to cover the five dimensions of service quality. Survey customers complete the questionnaire, with one section that measures the expectations of the 22 questions, and then another section measuring the

perceptions of the same 22 questions. For each question, the customer must rate, on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) whether or not he or she agrees with each statement. The SERVQUAL score is then the difference between the perception and expectation scores of actual service delivery (perception – expectation or P – E). This is referred to as the service quality gap which will be discussed in section 3.7.3. An organisation can then determine its level of service quality for each of the five dimensions by taking the average score across the questions for that dimension and then calculating the overall score. The five dimensions and the number of statements associated with each dimension are as follows:

- Tangibles (appearance and physical evidence): questions 1 to 4
- Reliability (dependability and accuracy): questions 5 to 9
- Responsiveness (helpfulness and promptness): questions 10 to 13
- Assurance (credibility, competence and courtesy): questions 14 to 17
- Empathy (easy access, communication and understanding): questions 18 to 22

(Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2007; Foster, 2010; Gryna *et al.,* 2007; Lewis, 2007; Moscardo, 2006; Palmer, 2008; Wilson *et al.,* 2008.)

As indicated in chapter 1, section 1.5.2.3, according to Foster (2010), the SERVQUAL instrument has several advantages such as the fact that it is accepted as a standard for assessing different dimensions of service quality and it has been shown to be valid for a number of service institutions. Equally important, it has been shown to be reliable and it has only 22 items which can be filled out quickly by respondents. It also has a standardised analysis procedure to help with the interpretation of results. Foster (2010), Lewis (2007) and Palmer (2008) further state that SERVQUAL can be used to track service quality trends and improve service across a broad range of industries and can be modified to suit organisational requirements. It can also be used to compare branches of an organisation, for example, a PHE institution with campuses across the country, as in this study, as well as compare an organisation with its competitors. It can therefore be utilised to identify areas requiring management attention to improve service quality as a source of competitive advantage.

3.7.3 Service quality gaps

In section 3.7.2 it was indicated that the service quality gap is the difference between the customers' perception and expectation of service quality (P – E). According to Foster (2010), the gap approach is widely recognised in quality literature and it refers to the difference between what the customer expects and what is actually delivered. Gaps are important because once a gap has been identified, corrective action and improvement must follow. Similarly, Moscardo (2006) indicates that gaps can be used to direct change and improvement in a service organisation. Figure 3.16 illustrates the five gaps identified by the SERVQUAL instrument.

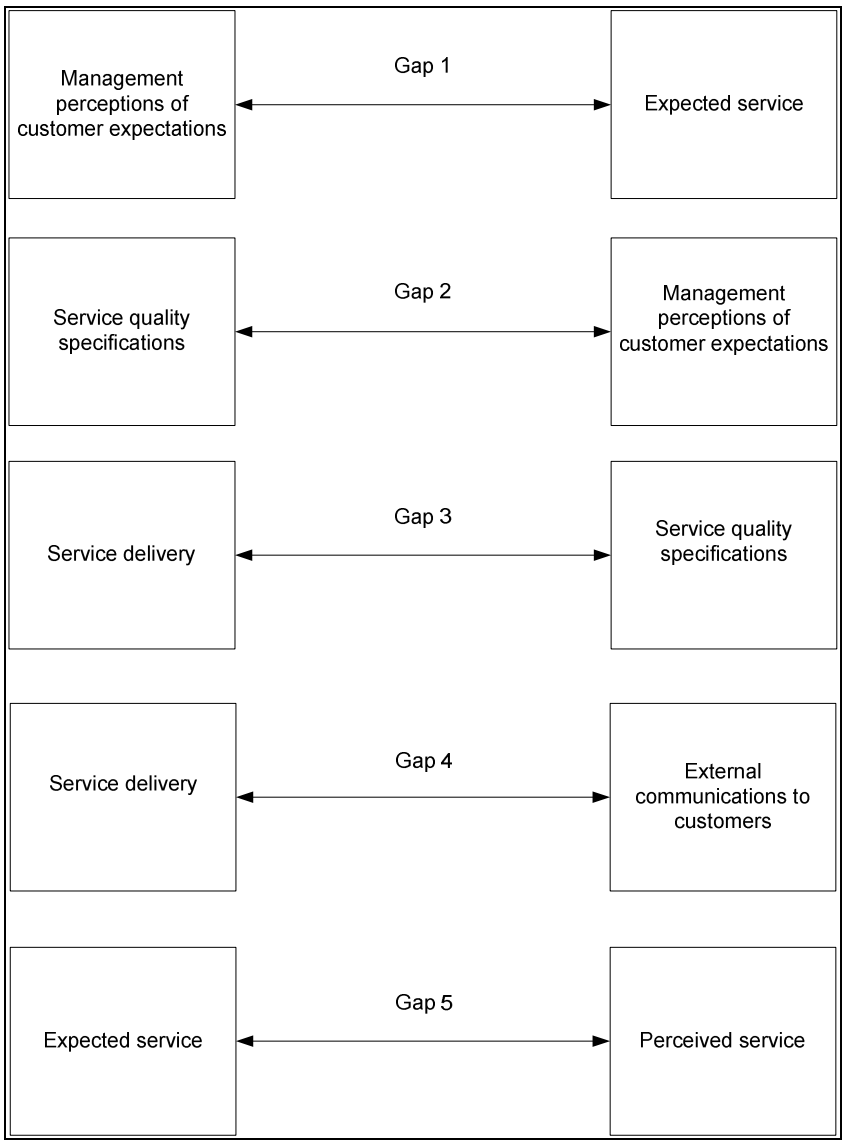

Figure 3.16: Gaps 1 to 5

(Source: Foster, 2010:261)

Figure 3.16 indicates that gap 1 shows the difference between customer expectations and management's perception. Management do not always know and understand what the customer wants. Gap 2 is the difference between management perceptions of customer expectations and service quality specifications. Gap 3 is the gap between service quality specifications and service delivery. This could be the result of inadequate training of personnel or poor management. Gap 4 refers to the gap between service delivery and external communications to customers. This could stem from the difference between what an organisation promises to deliver and the service that is actually delivered. Gap 5 is the difference between perceived and expected service delivery. The difference between the customers' expectations and perceptions or experience of the service is directly related to their perceptions of service quality. This gap occurs because of one or more of the previous gaps. The key to closing gap 5 is to close gaps 1 to 4 by means of improved communication, improved system design and highly trained personnel who render outstanding customer service (Foster, 2010; Kotler, 2000; Palmer; 2008).

3.7.4 Criticisms of SERVQUAL

Some of the drawbacks and criticisms of the SERVQUAL instrument were discussed in chapter 1, section 1.5.2.3. Kang and James (2004) elaborate on the criticism of the use of SERVQUAL and state that it only reports on the service delivery process and fails to address the service encounter outcomes. Buttle (1996) adds to this criticism by subdividing it into theoretical and operational criticism. Theoretical criticism includes elements such as the fact that SERVQUAL focuses on the process of service delivery and not the outcomes of the service encounter. One of the operational criticisms provided by Buttle (1996) indicates that completing the SERVQUAL questionnaire is a lengthy process (survey customers complete the questionnaire in one section that measures the expectations of the 22 questions and then another section measuring the perceptions of the same 22 questions), and this could lead to confusion.

However, despite the above criticism and that in chapter 1 and other similar studies, SERVQUAL is still the most widely applied instrument in service quality research. This is evident in the fact that it is still identified as an appropriate service quality

measurement instrument in recent marketing and quality management textbooks (e.g. Aaker *et al.*, 2007; Foster, 2010; Gryna *et al.*, 2007; Kotler, 2000; Palmer, 2008; Prideaux *et al.*, 2006; Wilson *et al.*, 2008) and journal articles (e.g. Baki, Basfirinci, Cilingir & Murat, 2009; Bayraktaroglu & Atrek, 2010; Chau & Kao, 2009; Chowdhury, 2009; Etgar & Fuchs, 2009; Gilmore & McMullan, 2009; Kumar, Kee & Manshor, 2009; Lai, Hutchinson, Li & Bai, 2007; Ruiqi & Adrian, 2009; Wong, Rexha & Phau, 2008). This use of the SERVQUAL instrument indicates that consensus has not yet been reached on the superiority of the other service quality measurement instruments over SERVQUAL.

Despite the criticism and limitations of the SERVQUAL instrument, as indicated in this section, it was applied in this study, at a PHE provider, in its original form as developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, 1988). The items under each of the five dimensions were adapted to suit the measurement of service quality in the PHE environment. Furthermore, it is the most popular instrument for measuring service quality and has been applied in a wide variety of service settings, including HE (Arambewela & Hall, 2009; Anderson, 1995; Barnes, 2007; Brochado, 2009; Bayraktaroglu & Atrek, 2010; Markovic, 2006; Quinn *et al.*, 2009; Qureshi, Shaukat & Hijazi, 2010; Radder & Han, 2009; Smith & Smith, 2007; Tahir, Abu Bakar & Ismail, 2010; Yeo, 2008). Until a new instrument is developed, SERVQUAL will undoubtedly dominate in the field of service quality research (Wisniewski, 2001).

3.7.5 Applications of SERVQUAL

This section will focus on some of the applications of the SERVQUAL instrument as suggested by Parasuraman *et al.* (1988).

Firstly, the SERVQUAL instrument was originally developed for retailers of goods and services. Retailers that offer the same quality goods can only competitively differentiate themselves in terms of quality of service. Retailers that only sell services have nothing to offer if their services are poor. The SERVQUAL instrument is a concise multiple-item model that is reliable and valid and can be adapted and applied across a variety of service settings, such as a PHE provider. Secondly, the SERVQUAL instrument is most valuable when it is used at regular intervals in

conjunction with other forms of service quality measurement. Service quality trends could be identified that could be used as a guideline to improve the quality of service, which in turn could improve the marketability of the provider. Thirdly, the SERVQUAL instrument can be used to assess the five service quality dimensions, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, by averaging the different scores on the items of each dimension. Fourthly, the SERVQUAL instrument can determine the relative importance of the five service quality dimensions in influencing the customers' overall quality perception. A possible fifth application of the SERVQUAL instrument includes the categorisation of the service organisation's consumers into several perceived-quality segments, that is, high, medium and low, on the strength of their individual SERVQUAL scores. The sixth application of the SERVQUAL instrument states that it can also be applied by multi-unit organisations, say, a PHE provider, with different campuses across South Africa to track the quality of service rendered by each campus. The average SERVQUAL score of each campus can then be compared. This could then potentially be a factor in the campus principal's performance appraisal and compensation.

From the above discussion it is evident that the SERVQUAL instrument has a variety of potential applications. It can assist a wide range of service providers to assess consumer expectations and perceptions of service quality. It can also help to identify areas that require action from top management to improve service quality.

More recently, Wilson *et al.* (2008:132) summarised the application of SERVQUAL data as follows:

- to determine the average gap score (between customers' perceptions and expectations) for each service attribute
- to assess a company's service quality along each of the five SERVQUAL dimensions
- to track customers' expectations and perceptions (on individual service attributes and/or SERVQUAL dimensions) over time
- to compare a company's SERVQUAL scores against those of competitors
- to identify and examine customer segments that differ significantly in their assessment of a company's service performance

- to assess internal service quality (i.e. the quality of service rendered by one department or division to others within the same company)

The application of the SERVQUAL instrument to measure service quality in South Africa is limited. Kgaile and Morrison (2006), Radder and Han (2009), Roelofse (2007) and Van der Wal, Pampallis and Bond (2002) applied the SERVQUAL instrument for research in a cellular telecommunications organisation, education and analytical laboratories.

3.7.6 HEdPERF

Section 3.6 above evaluated and compared different service quality models. Because this study was conducted against the backdrop of HE, and more specifically PHE, this section will briefly describe a "new" service quality measurement instrument namely the HEdPERF (Higher Education PERformance only) instrument, specifically designed for the HE sector. It was developed by Dr F. Abdullah from the MARA University of Technology in Malaysia.

According to Abdullah (2006a), little research has been conducted to identify the determinants of service quality from the perspective of students as the primary customers in HE. There are still many areas of disagreement in the academic community on how to measure service quality. Many researchers have adopted the popular SERVQUAL instrument to measure service quality in HE. In addition, Abdullah (2006a) contends that generic measures of service quality may not be the most appropriate way to determine service quality in an HE institution. Owing to the lack of an HE-specific service quality measurement instrument in HE, the HEdPERF was developed. The instrument consists of 41 items that were empirically tested for unidimensionality, reliability and validity using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). It contains six dimensions, namely nonacademic elements, academic elements, reputation, access, programme issues and understanding. The development and validation of HEdPERF consisted of three stages. Stage 1 included the identification of critical success factors or determinants of service quality, stage 2 the development of a research instrument and stage 3 a survey. All three stages were conducted in six tertiary institutions throughout Malaysia.

It was decided not to apply this research instrument in this study owing to the fact the

instrument has only been tested in Malaysia by its developer. To suggest that HEdPERF is superior to other service quality instruments would be premature and further studies should apply the instrument in other countries in order to test its consistency across different samples and cultures (Abdullah, 2006b).

3.7.7 SERVQUAL versus SERVPERV

The SERVQUAL instrument was criticised on account of the use of different scores, dimensionality, applicability and the lack of validity of the model in terms of the five dimensions (Babakus & Boller, 1992; Cronin & Taylor, 1992, 1994). Based on this criticism, Cronin and Taylor (1994) developed an alternative service quality measurement instrument, namely SERVPERF. This model justified discarding the expectations section of the SERVQUAL instrument, thus retaining only the perception portion of the scale. The SERVPERF scale is based only on customers' perception of the quality of service provided as opposed to the difference between the customer's perception and expectation of service quality. In addition, according to Palmer (2008) and Wilson *et al.* (2008), the instrument is easier to administer and analyse than SERVQUAL because the respondents rate only the performance of a service provider on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Brady, Cronin and Brand (2002) mention that Cronin and Taylor (1992) provided empirical evidence that SERFPERF outperforms the disconfirmation-based SERVQUAL instrument. However, SERVPERF has not achieved the same level of popularity in service quality research as SERVQUAL (Wilson *et al.,* 2008).

According to Palmer (2008), service organisations should recognise the dynamic nature of the relationship between customers' perceptions and expectations. As such, it is insufficient for an organisation to only maintain customers' level of perceived quality because of the fact that their perceptions may rise over time. Figure 3.17 depicts the quality gap between customer expectations and perceptions.

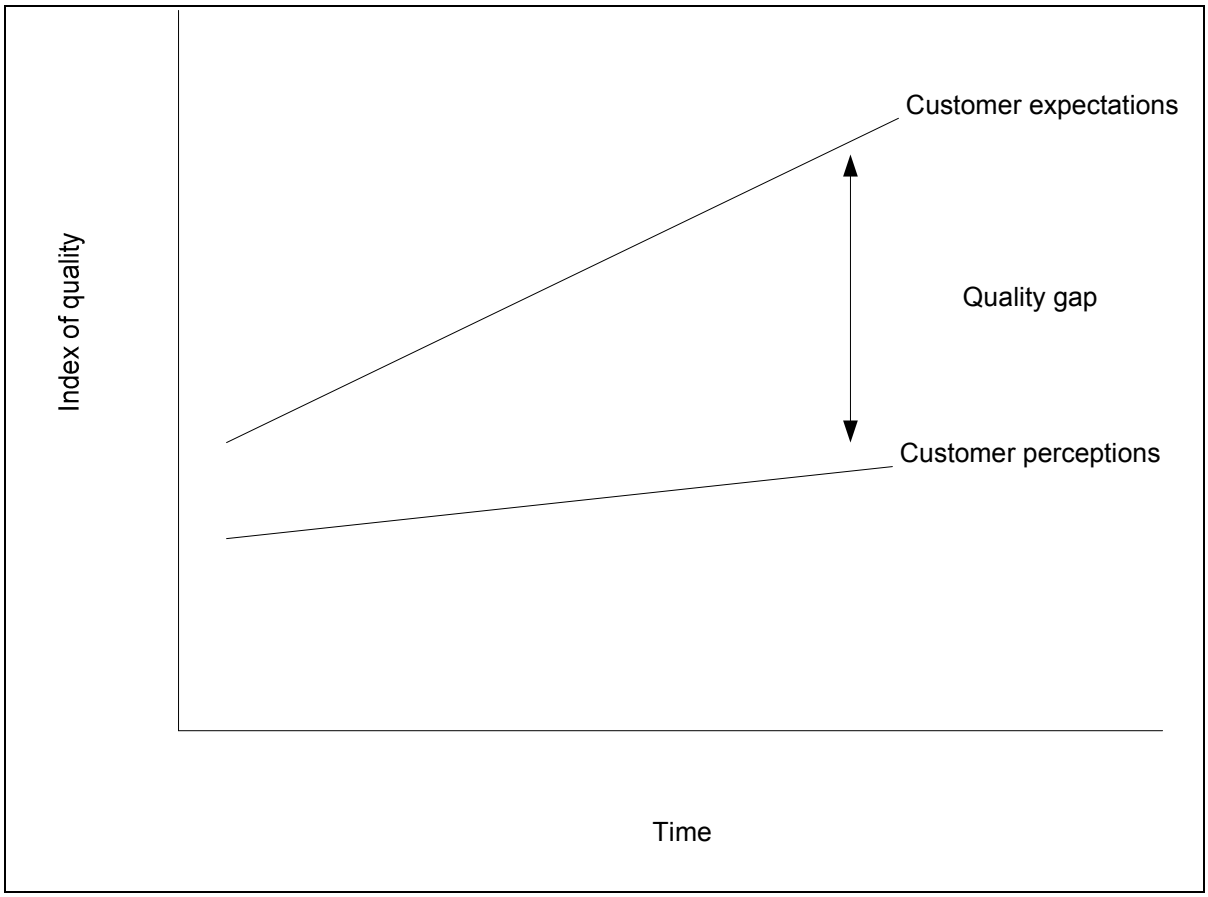

Figure 3.17: Quality gap between customer expectations and perceptions
(Source: Adapted from Palmer, 2008:358)

Figure 3.17 indicates that even if an organisation improves its performance, the evaluation of its service quality may decline because the customers may have moved ahead faster than the organisation's improvements efforts.

It is clear from table 3.8, section 3.6, that SERVQUAL or SERVPERF are the most suitable instruments to evaluate service quality. In a recent study by Bayraktaroglu and Atrek (2010), these two instruments were evaluated and compared in the measurement of service quality in an HE setting. The findings supported both the service quality measurement instruments of Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) and Cronin and Taylor (1992) and revealed that both SERVQUAL and SERVPERF were adequate to be used in an HE setting. Although the SERVPERF instrument was developed because of supposed weaknesses in SERVQUAL, both instruments revealed a good model fit in this study. SERVQUAL, however, had an excellent fit whereas SERVPERF only had a good model fit (Bayraktaroglu & Atrek, 2010). The

findings in the above-mentioned research project serve as another justification for the use of the SERVQUAL instrument in the current study.

3.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

The chapter provided an overview of quality and service quality and was divided into six sections. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 focused on quality and quality management. The focus of sections 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 was on services, service quality and service quality models. In section 3.6, the use of the SERVQUAL instrument was justified and the discussion revolved around its history, service quality gaps, criticism of the instrument and its application in South African research. It was determined that SERVQUAL has a variety of applications in different service settings and that it has been extensively applied in recent service quality research in HE. The chapter concluded with a brief look at a HE- specific instrument, namely HEdPERF and the application of SERVQUAL and SERVPERF in HE.

Chapter 5 focuses on leadership as the other construct that form part of the main purpose of this study – the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) will also be reviewed as a means to assess leadership practices in a PHE institution.

CHAPTER 4: LEADERSHIP

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of leadership and its impact on quality, specifically service quality. The previous chapter provided an overview of quality in management and dealt specifically with service quality and its importance in the PHE environment as a competitive factor. Sections 4.1 to 4.3 of this chapter will serve as an introduction to leadership. Factors such as the definition of leadership, the difference between leadership and management, effective leadership, leadership skills and responsibilities will be discussed. Leadership theories and styles will also form part of the introductory section of this chapter. The remainder of the chapter will focus on leadership and quality, service quality and leadership in HE. The chapter concludes with a discussion on leadership measurement instruments with the main focus on the LPI instrument. The use of this measurement instrument is then also justified for this study.

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 4.1 below.

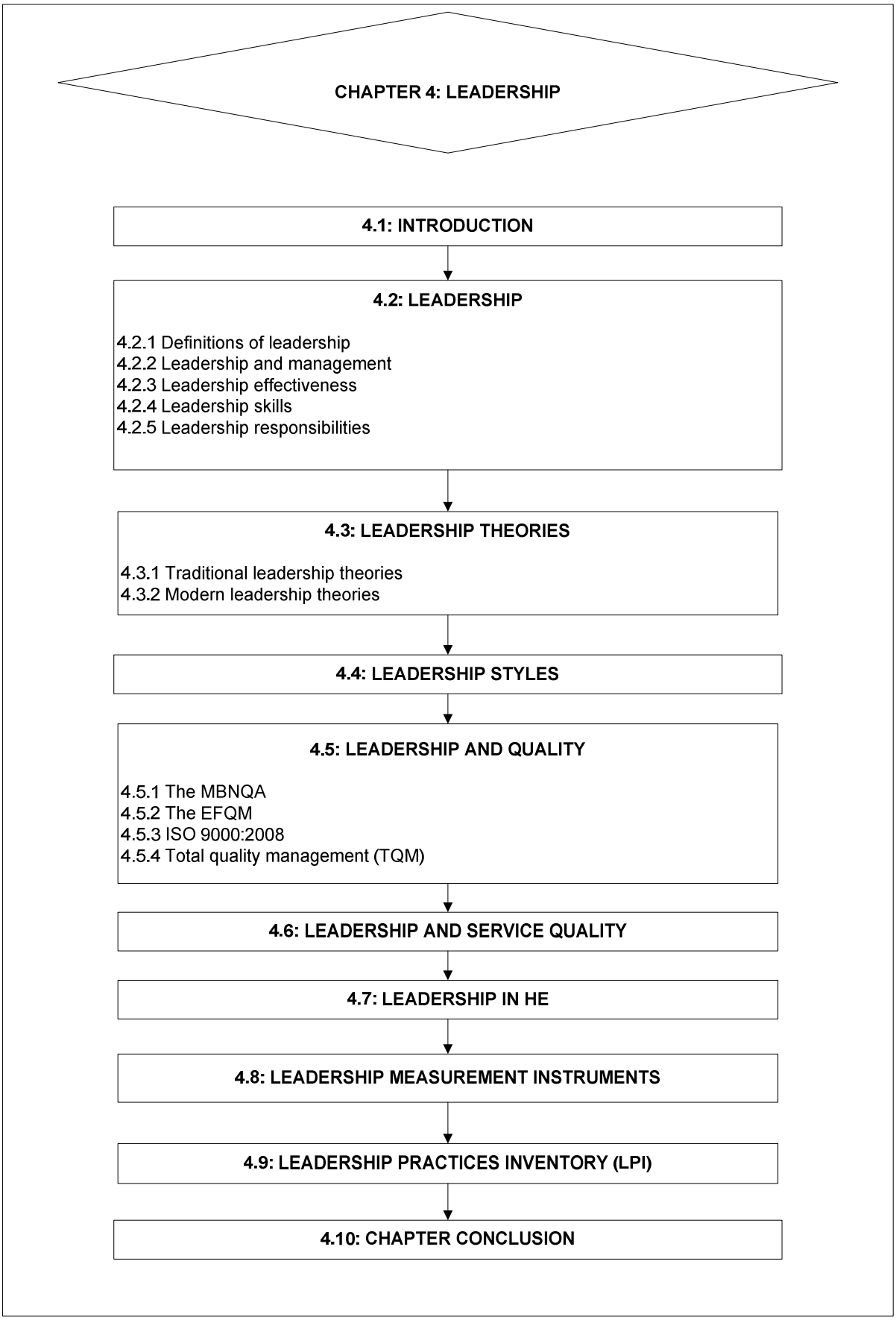

Figure 4.1: Layout of chapter 4

4.2 LEADERSHIP

Leadership principles can be traced back as far as Egyptian hieroglyphics (2 300 B.C.), the works of sixth-century Chinese philosophers, the Bible and the Icelandic tales of Viking heroes and villains. The word “leadership” first appeared in the English language in the first half of the 19th century in literature referring to the British Parliament. Although the concept of leadership has been around for many centuries, it was only after the 1930s that it was formally researched and studied. Prior to the birth of the transformational leadership theory in 1978, studies on leadership focused on the manager’s role and his or her relationship with followers. Since the 1980s, there has been a change in the way leadership is perceived. There has been a shift in the focus from control to the establishment of an environment in which people are successful and organisational results are positive (Barker, Sullivan & Emery, 2006; Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006). Leadership theories will be briefly introduced in section 4.3 of this chapter.

Leadership is vital in business. Effective leaders have a global outlook and take risks - they influence the way in which work is performed and how people are managed and interact. The focus of effective leaders is on transformation (Bratton, 2007; Kumar & Kumar, 2011). On the the strength of this statement, one needs to determine the exact meaning of leadership.

From a modern perspective, Foster (2010) maintains that leadership is a process in which a group of people are influenced by a leader to achieve superordinate goals. These are goals that not only benefit the individual but also the group. In addition, Foster (2010) indicates that leadership is about sharing power. This power assumes many forms such as the power of expertise (special knowledge); reward power (reward subordinates for goals achieved); coercive power (power to punish for not adhering to the rules); referent power (the leader is charming and is liked); and legitimate power (power stems from the person’s position in the organisation).

The next section will provide a few definitions of leadership in an attempt to explain the phenomenon.

4.2.1 Definitions of leadership

It is evident from literature that there are a plethora of definitions of leadership (Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006). According to Bratton (2007:132), "leadership is one of the most observed but least understood phenomena on earth". Grönfeldt and Strother (2006) state that the most recent definitions view leadership as a process that focuses less on the characteristics of the leader and more on his or her ability to coordinate the efforts of an organisation. Several definitions of leadership were presented in section 1.5.2 in chapter 1, based on the literature from 1996 to 2007. This section will briefly expound on additional definitions of leadership which have been proposed by several authors, as indicated in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Definitions of leadership

Author	Definition
Burns (Barker *et al.*, 2006:15-16)	Leadership is when "persons with certain motives and purposes mobilise, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, psychological, and other resources to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers".
Bratton (2007:132)	"Leadership is the process where an individual member of a group or organisation influences the interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the organisation of work activities, the motivation of people to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organisation."
Drafke (2009:460)	"Leadership is the ability to influence the activities of others, through the process of communication, toward the attainment of a goal."
Thompson (2009:155)	"It involves developing a shared view of the destination you are aiming for and the route you intend to follow to get there … a good leader 'pulls' the team by motivating and inspiring members to pursue shared goals."

Northouse (Wang & Berger, 2010:6)	Leadership is defined as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”.
Colquitt, Lepine and Wesson (2011:483)	Leadership is defined as “the use of power and influence to direct the activities of followers toward goal achievement”.

Following on the common themes of these definitions, it was proposed in chapter 1, section 1.5.2, that for the purpose of this study, leadership would be defined as “the mobilisation and influencing of people to work towards a common goal through the building of interpersonal relationships and the breaking of tradition to achieve the organisation’s objectives despite risk and uncertainty”.

4.2.2 Leadership and management

Leadership and management are often erroneously considered to be the same. However, a review of the management and leadership literature reveals distinct differences between these two concepts.

According to French, Rayner, Rees and Rumbles (2009), a simple differentiation between management and leadership would be that management is concerned with the daily running of the organisation, while leadership has more to do with inspiration and long-term change. However, management can be distinguished from leadership in that the former focuses on problem solving as well as planning, organising, leading and control the use of resources, while the latter provides inspiration and motivation to gain subordinate support for the attainment of long-term goals. Thomas (2006) distinguishes between management and leadership in terms of output. The output of management is making the right decisions, while strong business results are the output of leadership – hence the importance of leadership as a contributing factor to service quality. Similarly, Yielder and Codling (2004) argue that management refers to systems, tasks, goals and results, whereas leadership focuses on human relations, organising people and creating a vision of what might be as well as adopting a culture that can achieve that vision. Furthermore, according to Spendlove (2007), although there are a number of similarities between leadership and management, they are differentiated by the fact that leadership involves

influencing people to achieve desired outcomes or goals. The focus of management is more on the organisation's current activities and the implementation of policies. In addition, Drafke (2009) contends that leadership deals with people's behaviour and it is only one aspect of management. Management is a broader concept that includes leadership as well as nonbehavioural functions that do not immediately affect others. Drafke (2009) concurs with French *et al.* (2009), and indicates that management is a process of planning, organising, leading and control, whereas leadership is about inspiring people.

Thompson (2009) argues that although leadership is a crucial task of management, anyone can be a leader. Equally important, Kouzes and Posner (2007) state that leadership is everyone's business – it is also a behaviour that can be taught and learnt. The basis of earlier leadership theories such as the trait theory on leadership, which will be discussed in section 4.3, was that leaders are born and not made. However, this study supports modern leadership perspectives of authors such as Kouzes and Posner, who believe that leadership can be taught and learnt.

The significance of the belief that leadership can be taught is indicated in figure 4.2 below.

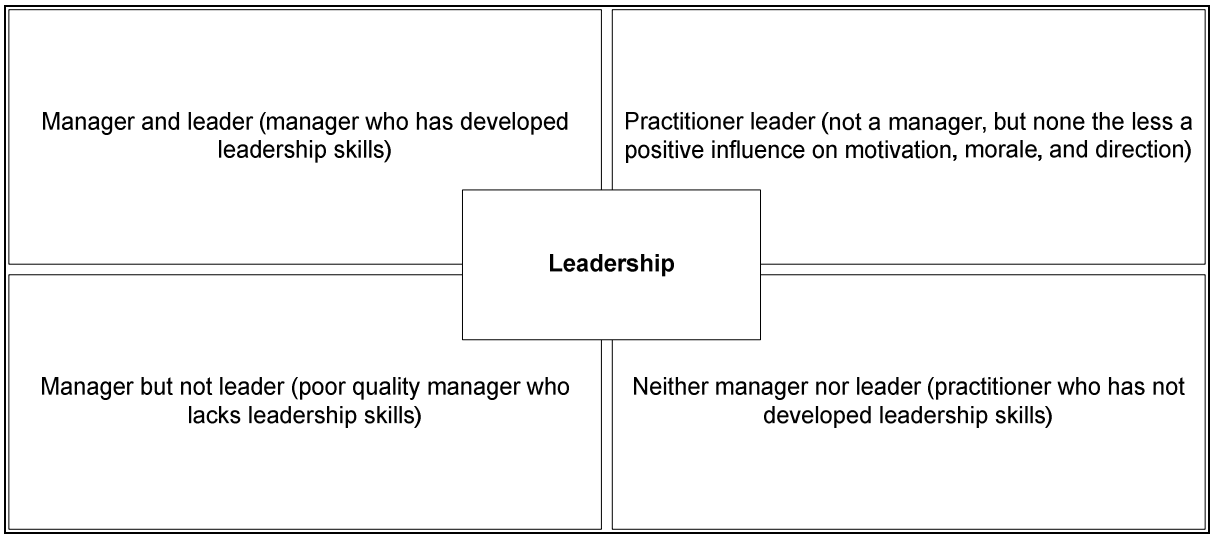

Figure 4.2: Leadership and management

(Source: Thompson, 2009:154)

Also evident from the above figure is the fact that leadership and management are indeed two different concepts.

Bratton (2009) argues that the distinction between leadership and management is vital in this era of rapid change because successful transformation is 70 to 90% leadership and only 10 to 30% management, thus emphasising the significant role of leadership in a rapidly changing society. The comparison between leadership and management is indicated by Bratton (2009) in figure 4.3 below.

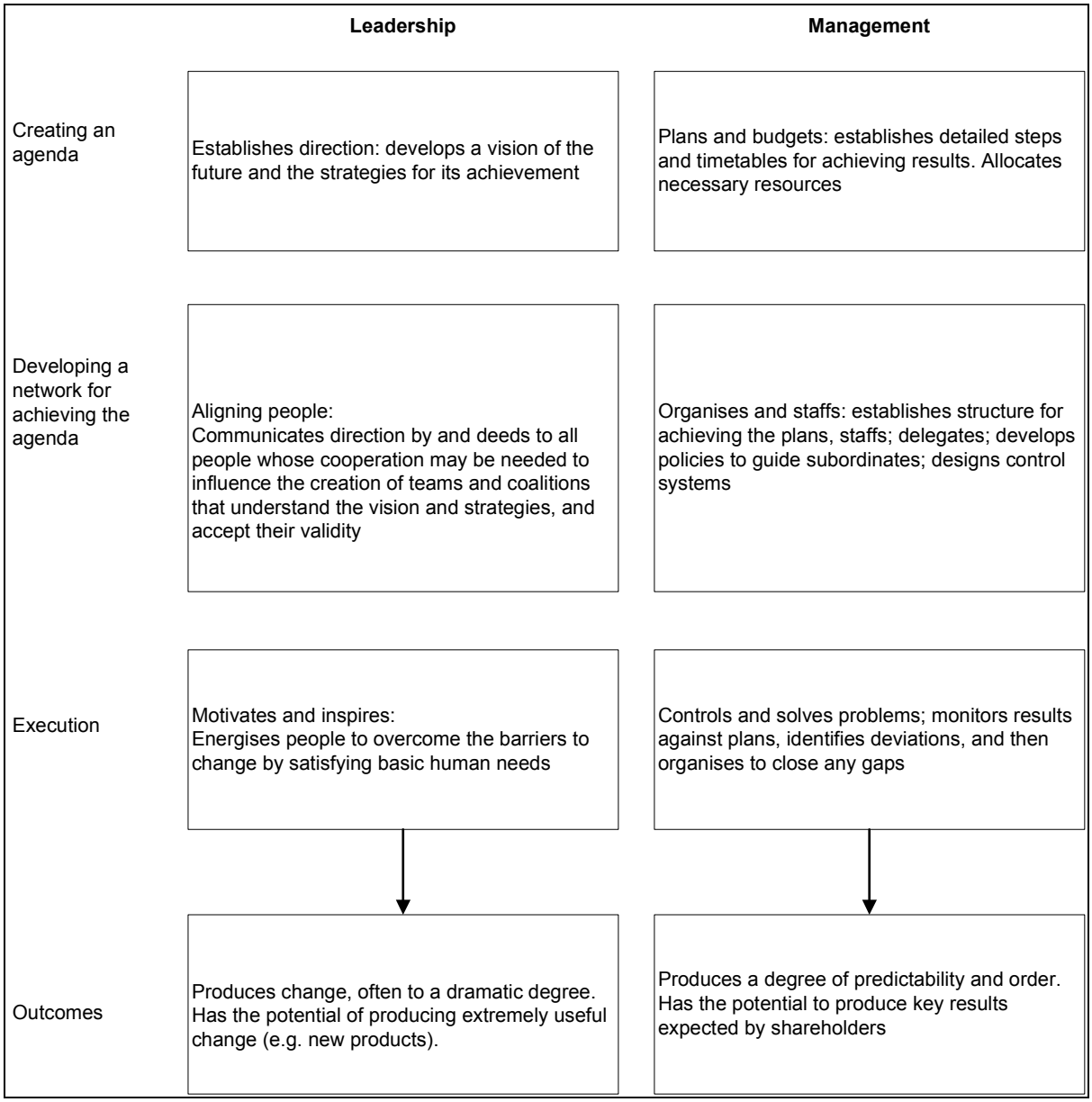

Figure 4.3: Leadership and management compared

(Source: Adapted from: Bratton, 2007:134)

It is clear from the discussion above that there is a definite distinction between management and leadership. However, in a study to differentiate between leadership

and management, Nienaber (2010) found that management is more comprehensive than leadership, but these two concepts are often used interchangeably and are indeed intertwined. Nienaber (2010) conducted an extensive literature search which included leading databases in business and management such as ProQuest, EBSCOHost, Emerald and SABINET. The findings revealed that there are no individual leadership tasks, only those that overlap with management tasks.

The next three sections will elaborate on leadership effectiveness, skills and responsibilities.

4.2.3 Leadership effectiveness

According to Oakland (2003), effective leadership starts with the chief executive officer's (CEO's) vision and strategy that will lead to business or service success. Effective leadership, together with TQM, results in the organisation doing the right things right, the first time. Oakland (2003) further identifies the following five requirements for effective leadership: (1) having a clear corporate purpose; (2) developing clear and effective strategies; (3) identifying critical success factors and critical processes; (4) clearly defined responsibilities of the management structure; and (5) employee empowerment. Clawson (2006), however, took Oakland's findings further by identifying six characteristics of effective leadership. These characteristics are as follows: (1) effective leaders know who they are and what they wish to achieve; (2) they have a clear view of where they wish to take the organisation; (3) they recognise the talents of others that can contribute to accomplishing the vision; (4) they are skilled organisational designers; (5) they never give up; and (6) they recognise and praise subordinates for progress towards achieving the vision. Kumar and Kumar (2011) added their findings to the leadership literature by arguing that in practising effective leadership, leaders not only respond to change, but also understand the actual change process, gain support for change, involve people in decision making and reward progress and success (Kumar & Kumar, 2011).

Finally, one can conclude that leadership can only be effective when management have close ties with their employees. Leaders must establish clear communication with their subordinates and act on what has been communicated (Oakland, 2003).

4.2.4 Leadership skills

A review of leadership literature indicates that various authors identify different leadership skills that make a leader successful. Some of the common themes in terms of leadership skills found in the literature include, but are not limited to, the following: advocate for change, visionary, being able to empathise, adaptability to change, setting clear and consistent goals, enthusiasm, integrity, team builder, honesty, flexibility, mentor, communicator and being able to inspire (Aikens, 2006; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Bratton, 2007; Evans, 2011; Manning & Curtis, 2003; Martinez & Wolverton, 2009; Palmer, 2008; Spendlove, 2007; Wang & Berger, 2010).

According to Foster (2010), four crucial skills, namely knowledge, communication, planning and vision, are necessary for effective leadership. Table 4.2 depicts these skills of effective leadership.

Table 4.2: Leadership skills

Quadrant 1: Knowledge	**Quadrant 2: Communication**	**Quadrant 3: Planning**	**Quadrant 4: Vision**
Acceptance of diversity	Assertiveness	Structuring (for task accomplishment)	Assessing the climate (internal and external)
Developing competence	Conflict management	Decision making	Identifying opportunities
Health/Wellness	Team building	Evaluation skills	
Learning style	Trust building	Task and time management	
Time management	Motivating others		
Ethics	Recruiting others		
Risk taking	Effective speaking		
Coping skills	Effective writing		

Effective listening
Image building

(Source: Foster, 2010:132)

With reference to table 4.2 above, in quadrant 1, knowledge helps the leader accept risk. In quadrant 2, the leader needs to communicate with subordinates as well as other leaders. In quadrant 3, the leader must plan and make decisions, and finally, in quadrant 4, the internal and external environment needs to be assessed and a vision of the future formulated.

Drafke (2009) distinguishes between four leadership skills, namely technical skills (the ability to perform the task required), human resource management skills (behavioural skills as in being able to work with people), conceptual skills (the ability to analyse and see the "big picture") and trust building skills (the ability to build a trust relationship with subordinates).

Kumar and Kumar (2011) underscore the importance of leadership skills and claim that leadership skills guide the way, are measurable and can be learnt (Kumar & Kumar, 2011). This view builds on the findings of Kousez and Posner (2007) and Osseo-Asare, Longbottom and Chourides (2007), who argue that leadership is a skill or behaviour that can be taught and learnt. The LPI instrument is based on the five practices of exemplary leadership, namely modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). A detailed discussion of the LPI instrument will follow in section 4.9 of this chapter.

4.2.5 Leadership responsibilities

Some of the main leadership responsibilities identified in the literature include, but are not limited to, the formulation of a clear vision, effective communication and shaping the organisational culture. The vision is future oriented and refers to a clear picture of the future. Organisational culture refers to the habits or unwritten rules in the organisation or "the way we do things around here" (Manning & Curtis, 2003;

Thompson, 2009). The responsibilities of business leadership, according to Aikens (2006), are indicated in figure 4.4 below.

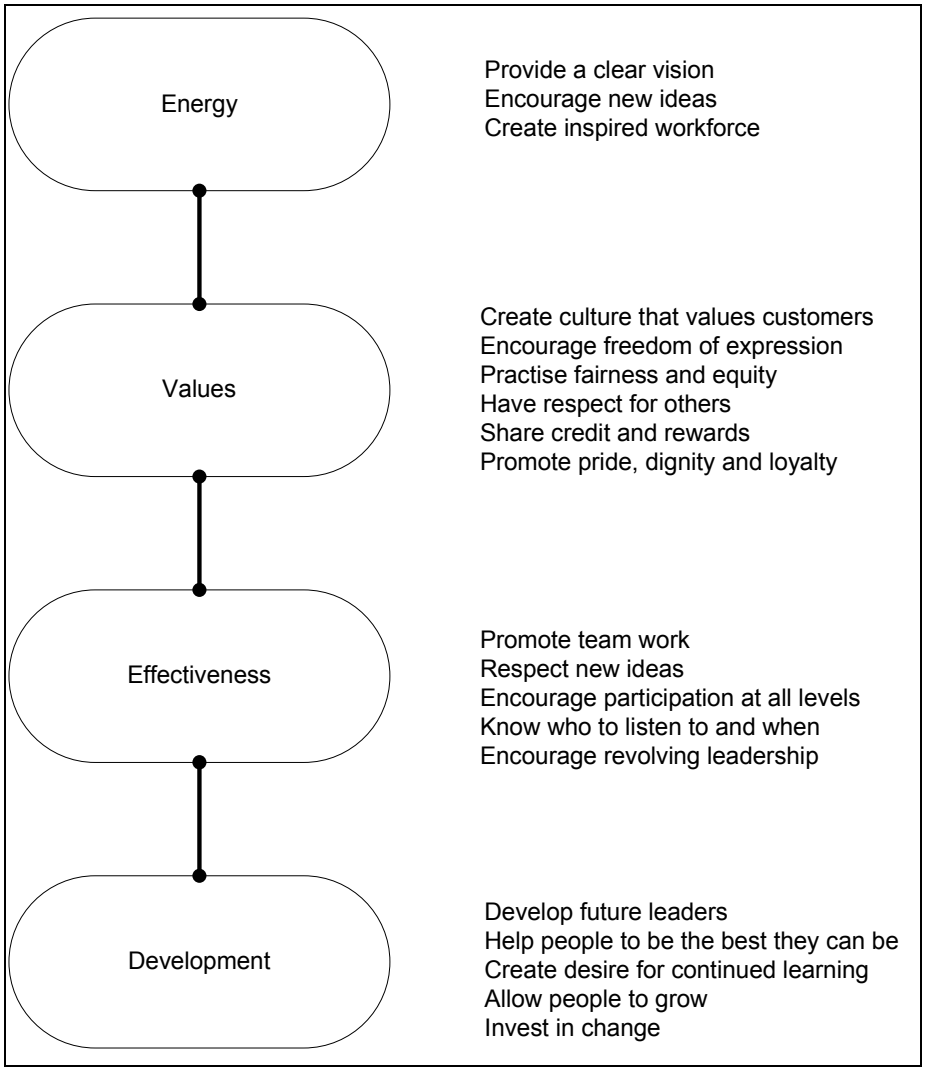

Figure 4.4: Responsibilities of business leadership

(Source: Adapted from Aikens, 2006:94)

Aikens (2006) divides business leadership responsibilities into the following four categories: energy, values, effectiveness and development. Each of these categories is linked to a set of responsibilities. Wang and Berger (2010) also investigated leader responsibilities and added direction, namely providing structure for followers. For the purpose of this study, the responsibilities of leadership can be summarised by the ten commitments of exemplary leadership as identified by Kouzes and Posner (2007:26):

(1) Clarify values by finding your voice and affirming shared ideas.
(2) Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
(3) Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities.
(4) Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their shared aspirations.
(5) Search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and looking outwards for ways to improve.
(6) Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience.
(7) Foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships.
(8) Strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence.
(9) Recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence.
(10) Celebrate values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

The next two sections focus on leadership theories and styles. The purpose of these two sections is to briefly explain some of the different theories and styles on leadership and how research on this construct has developed in the last century. Given the research objectives stated in section 1.4 of chapter 1, an in-depth discussion of leadership theories and styles is beyond the scope of this study.

The literature on leadership uses the terms “leadership theory”, “leadership approach”, “leadership style”, “leadership behaviour”, “leadership perspective”, and to a lesser extent “leadership model”, interchangeably. For consistency and for the purpose of this study, the terms “model” and “theory” will be represented by the term ***“theory”*** and the terms “approach”, “behaviour”, “perspective” and “style” will be represented by the term ***“style”***.

4.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Various leadership theories have developed in the last eight decades (Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006). This section will focus on a select few that can be classified as either traditional or modern leadership theories. The first part of this section will focus on traditional leadership theories and the second part on modern theories or modern schools of leadership.

4.3.1 Traditional leadership theories

Traditional leadership theories consist of the trait theory, the behavioural theory and the contingency theory.

4.3.1.1 Trait theory

The birth of the trait theory dates back as far as the turn of the 20th century. The focus of the trait theory was on an individual's physical, social and personal characteristics such as height, integrity, intelligence, self-confidence, strong values, attractiveness and creativity, to name but a few. Research on the trait theory was published mainly between the 1930s and 1950s. The trait theory tried to distinguish leaders from nonleaders or effective leaders from noneffective leaders. It was assumed that some people are born with these traits or characteristics and that they will be better leaders (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Bratton, 2007; French *et al.,* 2009; Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006; Laohavichien, Fredendall & Cantrell, 2009; Manning & Curtis, 2003; Nevarez & Wood, 2010; Von Eck & Verwey, 2007).

4.3.1.2 Behavioural theory

The behavioural theory developed from the trait theory in the 1950s. Researchers focused more on the behaviour of leaders that led to improved organisational effectiveness as well as increased productivity and satisfaction of followers. The focus was on how leaders behaved towards followers, that is, the interaction between leaders and followers. Research on the behavioural theory identified two types of behaviours, namely task- and person-oriented behaviour. The former refers to the leader's focus on the achievement of goals while the latter focuses on the building of interpersonal relationships. Thus the behavioural theory of leadership focuses on certain behaviours that differentiate effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Bratton, 2007; French *et al.,* 2009; Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006; Laohavichien *et al.,* 2009; Nevarez & Wood, 2010; Von Eck & Verwey, 2007).

4.3.1.3 Contingency theory

Researchers found that leaders with the same traits and behaviours displayed various success rates in different situations. The third traditional leadership theory, namely the contingency theory, developed in the late 1960s. The focus of this theory is on the interaction between the leader's traits and behaviours and his or her specific situation. A desired outcome will thus be reached depending on contextual factors contributing to the way in which the leader approaches a certain situation. Leadership effectiveness therefore depends on the leader, the follower and situational factors such as the external and internal environment and the type of work (Bratton, 2007; French *et al.,* 2009; Grönfeldt & Strother, 2006; Laohavichien *et al.,* 2009; Manning & Curtis, 2003; Nevarez & Wood, 2010; Von Eck & Verwey, 2007; Wang & Berger, 2010).

4.3.2 Modern leadership theories

This section examines the transformational and transactional leadership theories.

4.3.2.1 Transformational leadership

In terms of the modern schools of leadership, Wang and Berger (2010) state that after the early 1980s, a fourth leadership theory emerged, namely transformational leadership, which has become the focal point of much research. According to this theory, people engage with one another and create a connection that leads to higher levels of motivation for both leaders and followers. In addition, Grönfeldt and Strother (2006) mention that the transformational theory shifted the focus towards the relationship between leadership and change. Similarly, according to Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2007) and Laohavichien *et al.* (2009), transformational leadership is necessary to create and lead change.

According to Spendlove (2007), transformational leadership is based on a leader's charisma and intellectual inspiration. Research supports the notion that a charismatic or transformational leadership style may be more effective in HE. Similarly, Von Eck and Verwey (2007) contend that transformational leadership is based on developing

an appealing vision of the future and motivating and inspiring followers to achieve organisational goals. Charismatic leadership is sometimes used interchangeably with transformational goals and is also based on motivation to attain goals. This is supported by the research of Bodla and Nawaz (2010), which indicates that transformational leadership occurs when a leader is charismatic and motivates, inspires and stimulates his or her followers intellectually to achieve extraordinary goals.

According to French *et al.* (2009) and Evans (2011), transformational leadership has four dimensions, namely inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised influence and individualised consideration. Furthermore, Von Eck and Verwey (2007) maintain that some of the skills associated with transformational leadership include the creation of a clear vision, communication skills, the ability to obtain buy-in for change, empowering people, flexibility and empathy.
Research has shown that transformational leadership is associated with higher quality and that transformational leaders outperform transactional leaders (Jabnoun & Juma AL Rasasi, 2005). According to Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2007), transformational leadership seems to improve staff satisfaction and overall business results. Colquitt *et al.* (2011) mention that transformational leadership has strong effects in organisations and business units that are led by a transformational leader seem to be financially more successful and produce higher quality products and services. Furthermore, transformational leaders seem to have higher quality relationships of mutual respect with their followers who also tend to have higher levels of job performance.

The concept of transformational leadership is closely aligned with the five practices of exemplary leadership upon which the LPI instrument is based. Similarly, according to Colquitt *et al.* (2011), the four dimensions of transformational leadership have much in common with the five practices of exemplary leadership. As indicated in section 1.5.2.4 in chapter 1, the LPI instrument was applied in this study. Hence the LPI measures transformational leadership behaviour as demonstrated by leaders.

4.3.2.2 Transactional leadership

In transactional leadership, leaders and followers exchange services to achieve their objectives. This theory is based on a contractual commitment where the leader rewards his or her followers for objectives achieved. It involves exchanges or transactions between leaders and followers such as agreements or contingent rewards on a daily basis. The leader takes the initiative to make contact with his or her followers for the purpose of exchange. The need of both the leader and follower are met through the exchange process, but their purposes are not related in the sense that they do not pursue a common goal or direction. The transactional leadership theory therefore assumes that followers will wield extraordinary efforts to achieve the organisational goals based on exchanges such as contingent rewards (Barker *et al.,* 2006; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Evans, 2011; French *et al.,* 2009; Spendlove, 2007).

Laohavichien *et al.* (2009) claim that transactional leadership is a process of exchange whereby the leader rewards or punishes constituents on the basis of the achievement of organisational goals. Some authors point out that transactional leadership is necessary because it clarifies goals and ways to accomplish them. According to Laohavichien *et al.* (2009), transformational and transactional leadership are different but complementary behaviours and that leaders demonstrate varying degrees of these behaviours as required. However, more effective leaders demonstrate higher levels of transformational leadership than transactional leadership. Earlier research by Bass and Avolio (1994) and Waldman (1994) suggests that transactional leadership can have a negative effect because constituents might feel that they are forced to do unpleasant tasks which could then impact negatively on quality performance.

4.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES

There is a wealth of literature on leadership styles such as instructional, participatory, servant and distributive leadership (Nevarez & Wood, 2010). Drafke (2009) and Manning and Curtis (2003) mention three classical leadership styles that will also be considered in this discussion, namely the authoritarian or autocratic, participative or democratic and free-rein or *laissez-faire* leadership styles.

Wang and Berger (2010) also refer to the three leadership styles, namely authoritarian, *laissez-faire* and democratic. (1) Authoritarian leaders thrive on group dependence on the leader; it is the presence of the leader that keeps the group together and in his or her absence, no work will be done. (2) *Laissez-faire* leaders achieve little work whether they are present or not; and (3) democratic leaders achieve healthy working relationships, whether they are present or absent. Robbins and Coultar (cited in Bodla & Nawaz, 2010: 209) define the autocratic style as "a leader who tends to centralise authority, dictate work methods, make unilateral decisions, and limit employee participation"; the democratic style as "a leader who tends to involve employees in decision making, designate authority, encourage participation in deciding work methods and goals, and use feedback as an opportunity for coaching employees"; and the *laissez-faire* style as "leaders who generally give the group complete freedom to make decisions and complete the work in whatever way it see fit". In addition, Bodla and Nawaz (2010) state that in laissez-*faire* leadership, the leader avoids commitment to making decisions and does not make use of his or her authority. Table 4.3 indicates the different use of power in the three styles of leadership.

Table 4.3: Continuum of leadership styles

Directive style		**Participative style**		**Free-rein style**	
Maximum use of authority by leader				Maximum area of freedom of followers	
Leader decides what is to be done and how it is to be done, and presents the decision to followers, allowing no questions or opposing points of view.	Leader attempts to convince followers of the "rightness" of the decision.	Leader announces principles and sets forth methods of decision making, yet permits ideas, questions and discussion from followers.	Leader presents a problem, asks for followers' ideas and makes final decisions based on their input.	Leader presents problems with some boundaries and allows followers to make final decision.	Leader allows followers as much freedom as leader has to define problems and make decisions
Directive style (Leader-centred decision making)		**Participative style** (Leader and followers share decision making)		**Free-rein style** (Follower-centred decision making)	

Range of behaviour

(Source: Adapted from Manning & Curtis, 2003:48)

Manning and Curtis (2003: 49) mention five key points relating to leadership styles:

- Styles of leading are influenced by experience.
- An individual usually prefers the same style of leading and following.
- Leaders have been successful along all points of the continuum (see table 4.3).
- There is no universally effective style of leading. Sometimes it is best for the leader to tell employees what to do; sometimes it is best for leaders and subordinates to make decisions together; and sometimes it is best for employees to direct themselves. The best style of leadership depends on the qualities of the leader, the characteristics of the followers and the nature of the situation.

- If styles of leading and styles of following conflict, extra patience and communication are needed.

Drafke (2009) seems to agree with point 4 of Manning and Curtis (2003) above by stating that the best leadership style depends on three factors, namely the situation, the type of followers and the type of leader. In addition, Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) maintain that leaders who balance different leadership styles seem to be more successful than those who focus on one style or role.

4.5 LEADERSHIP AND QUALITY

Leadership by top management is crucial for achieving quality superiority (Gryna *et al.*, 2007). In addition, Foster (2010) holds that quality management begins with leadership, which is a core element of the quality management process. The impact of leadership is clear – organisations with weak leadership will not gain a market advantage in quality. According to Evans (2011), quality can only be improved through strong leadership, which is top management's responsibility. Quality improvement efforts cannot be sustained without strong leadership from the top. Evans's view is not singular. Earlier, Jabnoun and Juma AL Rasasi (2005) confirmed the importance of leadership in quality initiatives and referred to the findings of many scholars, including quality experts such as Deming and Juran. Figure 4.5 below indicates the content variables of quality management.

Figure 4.5: A categorisation of quality management content variables

(Source: Adapted from Foster, 2010:81)

According to Foster (2010), organisations should address these variables if they seek to improve their overall business performance. As indicated in figure 4.5, leadership is at the core of quality management. By the same token, Osseo-Asare, Longbottom and Murphy (2005) identify leadership as one of the core elements for sustaining continuous improvement in any organisation. Many of the founders of quality management (e.g. Deming), quality management scholars and empirical quality management studies focus on the key role of leadership in quality

management. This is based on the fact that leaders motivate constituents, who in turn help to improve quality performance (Laohavichien *et al.*, 2009).

According to Laohavichien *et al.* (2009), many researchers have indicated that the visionary leadership concept promoted by Deming as the most appropriate type of leadership for quality management, is in fact transformational leadership. Research conducted by Laohavichien *et al.* (2009) found that transformational leadership impacts positively on both infrastructure (the organisation's internal practices that show management support for internal and external relationships) and quality management practices (technical aspects, i.e. statistical process control), while transactional leadership does not affect either. The research has provided evidence that effective quality management requires top management commitment, and systems and policies to support quality. The evidence indicates that quality performance increases when there is support from top management, especially where leaders emphasise relationship-oriented and communication leadership practices. This confirms that organisations with higher quality performance display higher levels of transformational leadership than organisations that are less successful quality performers.

The remainder of this section will focus on the significance of leadership in international quality awards such as the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) and the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model. The section concludes with a discussion of the role of leadership in the ISO 9000: 2008 standard and in total quality management (TQM).

4.5.1 THE MBNQA

This award is presented annually in the USA and is one of the most powerful assessment tools for an organisation to measure quality business performance. The award has been used as the basis for various international quality awards. Small (fewer than 500 employees) and large (more than 500 employees) organisations in the manufacturing, health care, education and services sector are eligible to apply for the MBNQA process. The MBNQA consists of seven categories that form the organisational system for performance, as represented in figure 4.6 below.

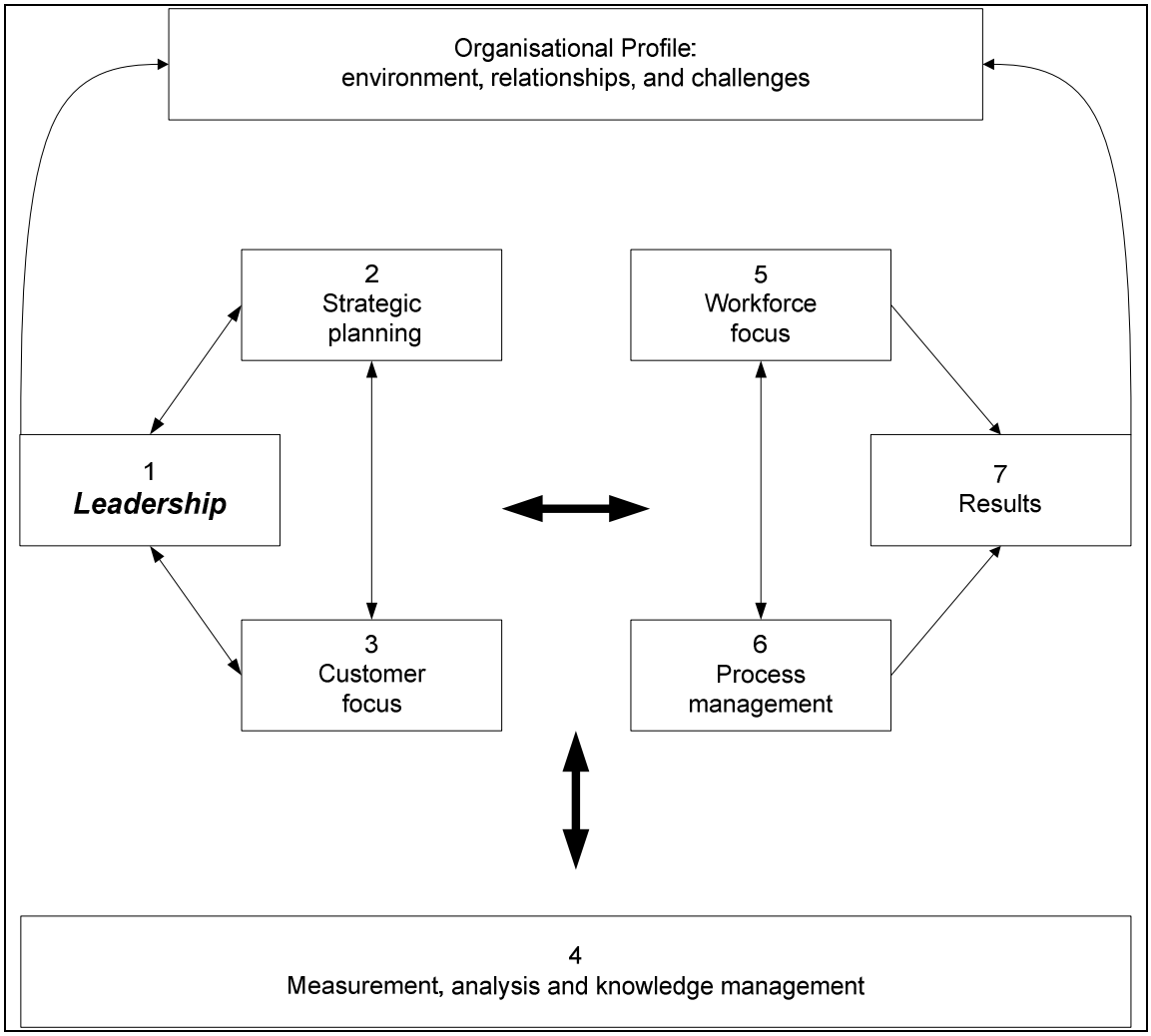

Figure 4.6: Baldrige Award framework

(Source: Adapted from Foster, 2010:98)

Category 1 represents the criteria for leadership which evaluate the extent to which top management are involved in the creation of goals, the setting of objectives and involvement with customers (Foster, 2010; Gryna *et al.,* 2007). According to Laohavichien *et al.* (2009), empirical tests of the MBNQA criteria support the fact that leadership is critical to success in quality management.

4.5.2 The EFQM

European organisations created the EFQM in 1988 following the success of the MBNQA, the acknowledgement that changes were needed if Europe wanted to compete in the world market as well as increased competition from abroad. The EFQM manages the European Quality Award (EQA) as indicated in figure 4.7 below.

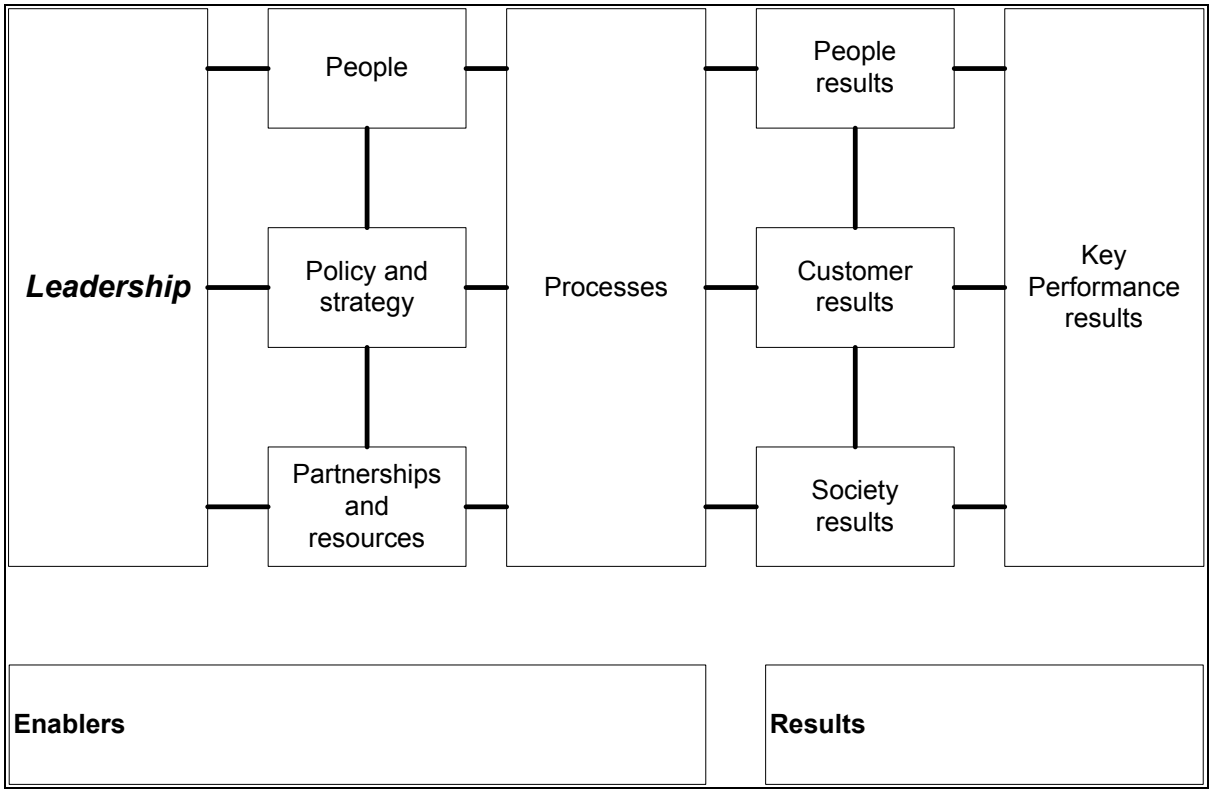

Figure 4.7: European Quality Award

(Source: Foster, 2010:111)

The focus of the Baldrige criteria is more on customer service and improved products, whereas the focus of the EQA is more on employee satisfaction as an outcome of the quality system (Foster, 2010). Leadership is the first criterion of the EQA.

According to Dale *et al.* (2007: 48), the leadership criteria for the EQA are divided into the following five parts:

- Leaders develop the mission, vision, values and ethics and are role models of a culture of excellence.
- Leaders are personally involved in ensuring the organisation's management system is developed, implemented and continuously improved.
- Leaders interact with customers, partners and representatives of society.
- Leaders reinforce a culture of excellence with the organisation's people.
- Leaders identify and champion organisational change.

Furthermore, Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2005) maintain that leadership can be expressed in terms of what leaders are expected to do, that is, “doing right things right”. This phrase can then be divided into “doing right things”, referring to “effectiveness” and “doing things right”, referring to “efficiency”, suggesting a functional relationship between effectiveness and efficiency. The EFQM framework confirms this functional relationship by means of the following definition of leadership: “How leaders develop and facilitate the achievement of the mission and vision, develops values required for long-term success and implement these via appropriate actions and behaviours, and are personally involved in ensuring the organisation’s management system is developed and implemented” (British Quality Foundation cited in Osseo-Asare *et al.*, 2005:151).

4.5.3 ISO 9000:2008

ISO is the Organisation for International Standards located in Geneva in Switzerland. The ISO 9000:2008 standard was developed so that a uniform international standard for the documentation of quality systems could be utilised by different countries. The ISO standard is broad in the sense that it can be adapted for various industries. The eight principles that form the basis of the ISO standard include customer focus, leadership, a process approach, the involvement of people, a systems approach to management, continual improvement, a factual approach to decision making and mutual beneficial supplier relationships (Dale *et al.,* 2007; Foster, 2010). Furthermore, according to Ramphal (2011a), top management should create a quality culture in which all stakeholders contribute to the optimisation of quality. The application of the leadership principle of the ISO 9000:2008 standard includes, but is not limited to, a proactive leadership approach which entails leading by example, establishing a clear vision, promoting open communication, setting clear goals, building trust and so forth.

The vital role of leadership in the management of quality cannot be overemphasised. From the discussion in the previous sections, it is evident that leadership is the fundamental building block on which the MBNQA, the EQA and the ISO 9000:2008 series of standards are based. This is supported by Osseo-Asare *et al.’s* (2007) statement that the primary role of leadership in effecting continuous improvement is

recognised by quality management-based models such as the EFQM Excellence Model and the MBNQA.

4.5.4 Total quality management (TQM)

In section 3.3.1.1 of chapter 3, TQM was referred to as a company-wide approach to quality that can significantly improve company performance. Hence TQM is a vital quality approach in getting everyone in the organisation involved in the process of continuous improvement.

Kumar and Kumar (2011) identify the following principles of TQM: (1) top management commitment (leadership); (2) supplier quality management; (3) continuous improvement; (4) product innovation; (5) benchmarking; (6) employee involvement; (7) reward and recognition; (8) education and training; (9) customer focus; and (10) product quality.

Leadership is the core element in all TQM approaches in HE providers and also seems to be a critical factor for success. Leadership commitment to quality improvement has led to the success of TQM applications in many HE providers in the UK. Based on strategic management principles and TQM models such as the EFQM excellence model, leadership "processes" are necessary for excellent performance results. Referring back to figure 4.7, leadership is the "input" into the "process" and the results the "output" from the process. In section 4.5.2 it was indicated leaders need to be both effective and efficient in what they do. TQM provides proof of a shift in leadership from being inspection oriented to being prevention–oriented, which combines effectiveness and efficiency and acknowledges people as a strategic resource (Osseo-Asare *et al.,* 2005). Likewise, Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2007) contend that leadership is the principal element for successful implementation of TQM in HE providers.

A study conducted by Kumar and Kumar (2011) confirms that leadership is essential for the implementation of TQM. Academics and practitioners agree that the success of TQM relies primarily on leadership. This is confirmed by various quality awards such as the EQA and the MBNQA which also identify leadership as a crucial element for continuous performance improvement (Kumar & Kumar, 2011).

In conclusion, Spigener (2004) contends that a complete quality system works from the top down through strong leadership and engagement with workers, and that successful leaders adopt quality as part of their every day work life. Effective leaders also link quality objectives to organisational objectives, connect employees and managers and align behaviours and practices across the organisation to achieve a quality culture that expedites the achievement of overall organisational goals.

4.6 LEADERSHIP AND SERVICE QUALITY

According to Rausch (1999), leadership skills can have a positive impact on the quality of service, and in service organisations, more than in manufacturing organisations, people's actions are the core of service quality. In the manufacturing industry, for example, when a problem is identified in the first phase of the production of an item, it can be rectified in the next phase, long before the item reaches the customer. However, when a service organisation fails in the same way, the client will be the first to know. According to Milakovich (2006), leadership should know how to continually improve systems, predict customer needs and adopt service cultures to focus on customer-driven quality. It is imperative to achieve high service quality to ensure an organisation's survival in a competitive, profit-driven economy. If an organisation fails to achieve its set objectives, the cause can often be traced back to a lack of leadership commitment. Leadership in a service environment generally tends to adopt a transformational leadership approach as described in section 4.3. In addition, according to Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009), the role of leadership is critical in improving service quality. Although there are many different forms of leadership, many theorists support the contention that a style based on human relationships will result in higher levels of staff satisfaction, group unity and improved organisational performance. In a similar vein, Tata and Prasad (Trivellas & Dargenidou, 2009) mention that people-oriented leadership roles based on teamwork, empowerment, customer focus and continuous improvement, are more beneficial for quality management implementation initiatives. According to Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009), this is also applicable to HE. Hence to improve service quality in HE, leadership behaviour needs to shift towards a transformational role based on people-oriented leadership.

Milakovich (2006) refers to the term total quality service (TQS) which is a simple but powerful improvement process for achieving customer satisfaction. It can be described as a strategy for improving services through continual improvements in quality. TQS is a critical first step to exceed customer expectations in terms of service quality and thus to increase market share. Similar to TQM, leadership is one of the core components of TQS, as indicated in figure 4.8 below.

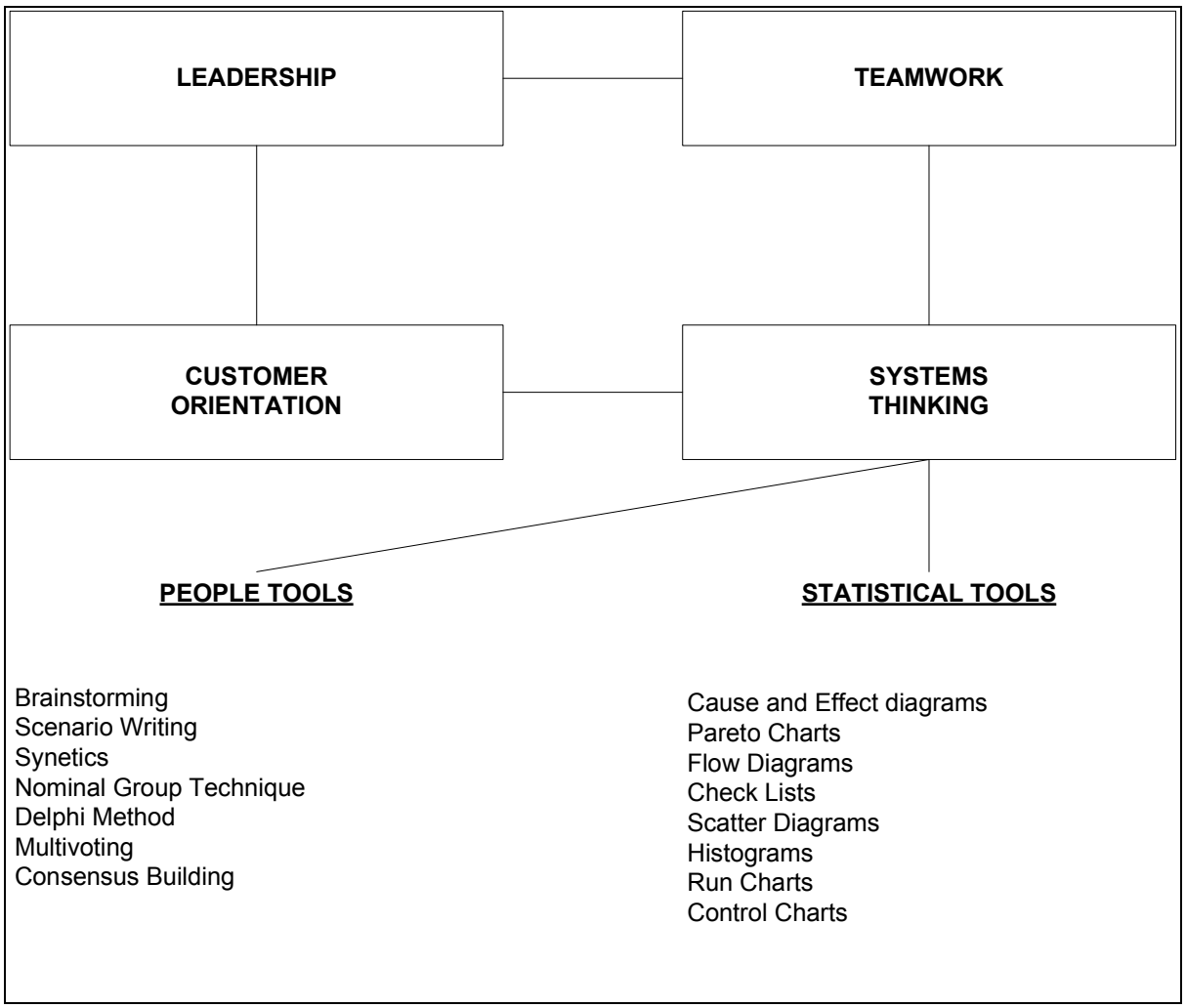

Figure 4.8: An interactive model for TQS

(Source: Milakovich, 2006:108)

Milakovich (2006) goes on to say that leadership in the TQS model is essential for transforming the behaviour of people in service organisations. The model views human, managerial and technical subsystems as being interrelated to the mission of the organisation. Successful TQS may result in higher productivity, lower operating

costs and improved job satisfaction. Likewise, Milakovich (2006) suggests the following action strategies for leadership to improve service quality: (1) encourage teamwork and break down barriers between departments; (2) formulate a mission that represents the shared values of the organisation; (3) empower employees; (4) attend to the needs of customers and suppliers; and (5) continually adapt to change.

In a study conducted by Jabnoun and Juma AL Rasasi (2005) it was found that service quality was positively related to both transformational and transactional leadership. Many research studies provide evidence that transformational leadership improves employee performance. However, these studies only focused on performance measures such as profit, sales figures and stock performance. Jabnoun and Juma AL Rasasi (2005) further maintain that no other empirical study could be found that investigates the relationship between leadership practices or behaviour and service quality. This study could in fact be the only other attempt to report on the impact of leadership practices or behaviour on service quality. Whereas the study of Jabnoun and Juma AL Rasasi (2005) focussed on United Arab Emirates hospitals, the current study was conducted in the PHE sector in South Africa, as highlighted in chapter 2.

The last three sections of this chapter will focus on leadership in HE, leadership measurement instruments and the LPI instrument. The use of this measurement instrument in this study will also be justified.

4.7 LEADERSHIP IN HE

Section 2.3.3 in chapter 2 provided an overview of the changes and current challenges in HE. In the same vein, Yielder and Codling (2004) assert that leadership in HE has become increasingly uncertain because of external challenges. According to Van Ameijde, Nelson, Billsberry and Van Meurs (2009), HE institutions are constantly facing the pressures of change. Some of these pressures can be attributed to increased competition between colleges and universities for students and funding as well as the expectation of the private sector to produce highly qualified graduates. This has also led to a change in the “academic language” of principals, students and courses to a language more common to line managers, customers and products. Hence HE institutions, especially PHE institutions, are no

longer in a protected environment and are expected to function according to market requirements and pressures. According to Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009), the study of leadership in HE is problematic because of dual control systems (professional and administrative authority) and unclear goals. Leadership has to be applied in both administrative and academic departments. Academic leaders face more challenges than ever before because of new rules and regulations, systems of quality assurance and external bodies that expect HE providers to simply accept change and restructure accordingly.

Wang and Berger (2010) identify the following problems that seem to have infected HE in the 21st century:

- People in leadership positions in HE (i.e. college principals) are hired on the basis of nepotism as well as their connections with HE administrative bodies.
- People in leadership positions in HE (i.e. college principals) are not committed to shared governance.
- People in leadership positions in HE (i.e. college principals) make policy decisions behind closed doors.
- People in leadership positions in HE (i.e. college principals) favour certain groups and retain unqualified staff, while there are more suitable and qualified staff being excluded from the faculty.
- People in leadership positions in HE (i.e. college principals) make uninformed decisions that are not research or evidence based.

The authors summarise their list of problems in HE by stating that some HE leaders are simply incompetent and should never have been appointed as leaders.

Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2005:151) define leadership in HE as "a personal and professional ethical relationship between those in leadership positions and their subordinate staff, needed in order to appreciate and call forth their full potential". Management in an HE setting includes managing resources, staff, space and operational and strategic planning. Leadership in HE includes activities such as giving academic direction, setting an example, building teamwork, teaching and research, consultation with students and decisions relating to academic programmes. Leadership and management involve different but overlapping abilities

and skills. In HE, someone in a management position is “in authority” as part of an organisational structure, while someone in a leadership position is “an authority” on the basis of his or her knowledge of a particular field of study (Yielder & Codling, 2004). Furthermore, Neave and Van Vught (Yielder & Codling, 2004) assert that the managerial aspect of leadership in HE providers is characterised by the following three features: (1) increased influence of external stakeholders (i.e. government), (2) a strong focus on strategic planning, and (3) the embracing of corporate techniques and characteristics.

Effective leadership practices are one of the critical success factors for quality improvement in HE and consist of two factors. The first is clear “communication” of the vision and mission, while the second entails the implementation of “core processes” with the help of empowered staff to deliver a superior service to students and other stakeholders (Osseo-Asare *et al*., 2005). In addition, according to Osseo-Asare *et al*. (2007), leadership is the driver that accomplishes academic excellence in HE. Staff in leadership positions in HE have a dual responsibility. Firstly, they must be effective leaders in deciding on the right teaching and research objectives. Secondly, they must be efficient managers in terms of resource allocation in order to achieve the set objectives. Leadership in HE should be based on empowerment, motivation, support and encouragement instead of inspection and control of staff.

Spendlove’s (2007) findings indicate that credibility and experience of university life are fundamental elements for effective leadership in HE. Additional key elements include people skills, honesty and the ability to think strategically and negotiate and communicate with others. Credibility was found to be the main element for effective leadership in HE. Taken as a whole, these findings confirm Kouzes and Posner’s (2007) assumption that credibility is the foundation of leadership.

From the discussion above it would seem that some of the key characteristics of leadership in HE include giving academic direction, clear communication of the vision and mission, team building, strategic planning and credibility, to mention but a few. Research by Thorp and Goldstein (2010) identified the following commonalities of leadership in HE: (1) the setting of a clear mission and vision, (2) establishing a culture that celebrates innovation and creativity, (3) strategic planning in order to create a sustainable competitive advantage, and (4) team building.

Osseo-Asare *et al.* (2005) clearly indicate that transformational leadership is crucial in an HE provider in order to transform weak practices into best practices, thus reducing staff turnover, raising morale and reducing workloads and staff dissatisfaction to acquire better results through empowerment. In addition, Bodla and Nawaz (2010) compared transformational and transactional leadership in public and private HE institutions. They found that leaders in both sectors have the same degree of transformational leadership. This confirms the statements of Spendlove (2007) and Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) in sections 4.3 and 4.6 respectively that a transformational leadership approach is more effective in HE.

4.8 LEADERSHIP MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

What makes a leader more effective is a question that has been posed since the birth of the traditional leadership theories. Hence a large group of leadership measurement instruments were developed to investigate effective leadership.

Leadership effectiveness can be measured in various ways. Leaders may be judged on performance measures such as profit margins, market share, return on investment, productivity, quality and so forth. Other approaches to measuring leadership effectiveness include employee surveys that assess the observed performance of the leader, including respect for him or her and his or her legitimacy (Colquitt *et al.*, 2011). The most common themes of leadership measurement instruments are discussed below.

In chapter 1, five leadership assessment tools were investigated. It was found that all the instruments under investigation were based on self-assessment only and lacked reliability and validity. It was stated in section 1.5.2.4 in chapter 1 that the LPI would be utilised to conduct this study. This section will briefly expound on seven additional leadership assessment tools that could be applied in a PHE environment to measure leadership effectiveness. The fact that the LPI was deemed to be the most appropriate instrument for this study will also be confirmed. The review of all existing leadership assessment tools is beyond the scope of this study.

4.8.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ was developed by Bass in 1985 and consists of 142 statements measuring three transformational and three transactional factors. The transformational factors include charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. The transactional factors comprise contingent reward, active management by exception and passive-avoidant leadership. The MLQ is a well-established research tool and has been applied in a variety of research settings (Jabnoun & Juma AL Rasasi, 2005; Sylvester, 2009). The MLQ was not chosen for this study because the primary focus is not on transactional leadership characteristics. In addition, Carless, Wearing and Mann (1994:16) clearly indicate that “the results of this research provide evidence that the LPI has better discriminate validity compared with the MLQ. Based on these findings, it is recommended that future empirical research is undertaken with the LPI. The findings of this research indicate that the LPI, compared to the MLQ, is a more effective discriminating instrument. In addition, there was substantial agreement between the self and other ratings on the LPI compared with the MLQ."

4.8.2 The Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLI)

The TLI was developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter in 1990. The model assesses six transformational leadership components and one component of transactional leadership, namely contingency rewards. The six components of transformational leadership are: (1) identifying and articulating the vision; (2) providing an appropriate model; (3) fostering acceptance of group goals; (4) high performance expectations; (5) providing individualised support; and (6) intellectual stimulation. The TLI questionnaire consists of 28 questions (four questions per component) and respondents have to rate each item on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The TLI was originally developed on the basis of research in a large petrochemical organisation and has also been applied in a study in secondary education, private organisations in Pakistan and a leadership study in organisations in the USA and Canada. Researchers have found that the psychometric properties of the TLI are acceptable for research purposes. (Odegaard, 2008; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer, 1996; Riaz & Haider, 2010; Sylvester, 2009). However, according to Podsakoff *et al.* (1990), the three

dimensions of identifying and articulating the vision, providing an appropriate model and fostering acceptance of group goals were found to be highly intercorrelated. For this reason as well as the limited use of this model in research, it was decided not to apply the TLI in this study.

4.8.3 The Leader Assessment Inventory (LAI)

The LAI was developed by Warren Burke in 1994. It is a 35-item, five-point Likert scale questionnaire that measures transformational and transactional leadership styles. The LAI has been applied in leadership development programmes and empirical studies (Doolos, 1997; Feinhberg, Ostroff & Burke, 2005; Rakoff, 2010; Sylvester, 2009). However, this model is rarely used in research and is difficult to obtain (Sylvester, 2009).

4.8.4 The Follower Belief Questionnaire and the Attributes of Leader Behaviour Questionnaire

The Syncretical Model of Charismatic /Transformational Leadership was developed by Behling and McFillen in 1996. The questionnaire consists of 66 items with a five-point Likert scale in which six attributes of leader behaviour and three of follower behaviour are assessed (Behling & McFillen, 1996; McCann, Langford & Rawlings, 2006; Sylvester, 2009). Behling and McFillen's (1996:184) article states that "… further tests of the instrument are in order". Furthermore, additional research provided only partial support for Behling and McFillen's original theory and raised questions about certain attributes of leadership behaviour applied in the model (McCann *et al*., 2006). On the strength of the above information, this instrument was not applied in this study.

4.8.5 The Conger-Kanungo (CK) scale

The CK scale is a 20-item, five-dimensional scale with which charismatic leadership is assessed. The five dimensions include (1) strategic vision and articulation, (2) sensitivity to the environment, (3) personal risk, (4) unconventional behaviour, and (5) sensitivity to member needs (Conger, 1999; Conger, Kanungo, Menon & Mathur,

1997; Yang, 2009). The application of the CK scale in research is limited and not as extensively documented as the LPI and MLQ (Sylvester, 2009).

4.8.6 The Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ)

The TLQ, which was developed by Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe in 2000, is based on data obtained from 1 464 managers in local government organisations in the UK. Further research conducted by Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe in 2001 and 2007 respectively found that the TLQ possesses psychometric criteria of reliability, construct, content and convergent validity (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalf, 2000; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalf, 2001; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalf, 2007). Although a review of the literature shows that the instrument has been applied in various studies, there is a need for further research on the TLQ in terms of a broader sample of industries and organisations to examine the predictive validity of the instrument (Sylvester, 2009).

4.8.7 The Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale

The GTL was developed by Carless *et al.* in 2000 and based on data collected from a sample of 1 440 subordinates who assessed the leader behaviour of 695 branch managers in an Australian financial organisation. The GTL is a short assessment of transformational leadership comprising a seven-item survey with a five-point Likert scale. The scale measures whether a leader is visionary, innovative, supportive, participative and worthy of respect and distinguishes between strong and weak leaders. Research has proven that the scale is reliable with convergent and discriminant validity (Carless *et al.*, 2000; Sylvester, 2009). However, according to Sylvester (2009), the GTL has not been applied as extensively in research as the LPI and the MLQ, and it was thus not used in this study.

4.9 THE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (LPI)

As indicated in the previous section, the LPI was selected for this study. In this section the LPI will be examined in more detail and its application in this study justified. Mention will also be made of other studies that have applied the LPI

instrument in empirical research. The development of the LPI instrument by Kouzes and Posner, which started in 1983, will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5. The focus will be on the LPI's psychometric properties, validity and reliability.

4.9.1 History of the LPI

According to Kouzes and Posner (2003a), after hundreds of interviews, thousands of case analyses and hundreds of thousands of survey questionnaires, it was discovered that leaders follow similar patterns in guiding and leading others. From these similar patterns, the following five practices of exemplary leadership were formed (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a:1-6):

- *MODEL THE WAY* – Credibility is the foundation of leadership. If people don't believe the messenger, they won't believe the message. Leaders *Model the Way by clarifying their values and setting an example.*
- *INSPIRE A SHARED VISION* – Leaders *Inspire a Shared Vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in a common vision.*
- *CHALLENGE THE PROCESS* – Leaders *Challenge the process by searching for opportunities and by experimenting, taking risks, and learning from experience.*
- *ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT* – Leaders *Enable others to Act by fostering collaboration and strengthening others.*
- *ENCOURAGE THE HEART* - Leaders *Encourage the Heart by recognising contributions and celebrating values and victories.*

The LPI has its origins in a research project started by Kouzes and Posner in 1983. The purpose of the research project was to determine what people do when they were at their "personal best" in leading others. The assumption was that to discover best practices in leadership, it was not necessary to interview "star" leaders of excellent organisations. After some preliminary research, a leadership survey was developed consisting of a few open-ended questions such as the following:

- Who initiated the project?
- How were you prepared for this experience?

- What special techniques and strategies did you use to get other people involved in the project?
- What did you learn about leadership from this experience?

By 1987, Kouzes and Posner had conducted more that 550 of these surveys. At the same time, a shorter version of the survey was completed by 80 managers. An additional 42 in-depth interviews were also conducted. In this initial study, middle and senior level managers in private and public sector organisations were evaluated. On the basis of this research, a research model was developed that consisted of the five practices of exemplary leadership as described in the previous section. This led to the development of a quantitative leadership measurement instrument, namely the LPI. Over its more than 20-year history, it has been translated into 12 languages (Kouzes & Posner [s.a.]).

4.9.2 The LPI instrument

The LPI gives people 360-degree feedback on their leadership behaviours. This feedback is vital because leadership is a relationship be it on a one-to-one or one-to-many basis. It is a relationship between those who choose to lead and those who choose to follow. Leaders succeed in their roles on the strength of the quality of the relationship they have with their followers. One of the main reasons why leaders fail is poor relationships with constituents; and the number one reason why people leave organisations is poor relationships with their immediate managers. Leaders who engage in the five practices of exemplary leadership, as described in section 4.9.1, tend to be more effective than those who are not (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a; Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

The LPI questionnaire consists of 30 statements that address behaviours when people are at their personal best. The questionnaire has a “self” version and an “observer” version. The former is completed by the leader, while the latter gives 360-degree feedback from constituents, managers, colleagues and others in order to provide a balanced picture of leadership behaviours. Five to ten people, usually selected by the leader, complete the “LPI observer” form. Respondents can indicate their relationship to the leader, namely the manager, co-worker or peer, direct report

or other observer. With the exception of the leader's manager, all the observers' feedback is anonymous. Responses are captured on a ten-point scale with behavioural anchors. For each statement, the respondent indicates how often the leader engages with that particular behaviour. Responses range from 1 (almost never) to 10 (almost always). Six questions are linked to each of the five practices of exemplary leadership. A high value represents more frequent use of a particular behaviour. Computerised scoring software provides feedback along a number of dimensions, including comparisons by respondent category, rankings by frequency and variances between "self" and "observer" scores (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a; Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

Kouzes and Posner (2003b) report that the LPI has proven to be both reliable and valid on the basis of more than 25 years of research and more than 200 academic studies and master's dissertations using the LPI as a research instrument. The authors (2003b:17) assert the following: "For an instrument to be used in an academic environment, it must meet certain psychometric tests that internally developed competency surveys do not always have to meet. Academic institutions are very rigorous in the criteria they use to determine whether or not an instrument passes these tests. The knowledge that the LPI is considered valid and reliable by these standards should give confidence to all those who use the LPI in their work that they can count on the LPI feedback.

4.9.3 Application of the LPI instrument

The LPI seems to be the most widely applied instrument in leadership assessment research and has been referred to as "the most reliable leadership development instrument available today" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a:9). This statement is confirmed by the fact that the LPI is identified as an appropriate leadership assessment instrument in recent journal articles and doctoral theses (Abdullah, 2009; Leigh, Shapiro & Penney, 2010; Artley, 2008; Garraway, 2008; Mancheno-Smoak, Endres, Potak & Athanasaw, 2009; Matviuk, 2010a; Matviuk, 2010b; Quaglieri, Penney & Waldner, 2007). The LPI has been applied as a research instrument in a wide variety of sectors, including HE (Aaker, 2003; Broome, 2003; Hyatt, 2007; Langbein, 2010;

Marcketti, Arendt & Shelley, 2011; Suwandee, 2009; Vasquez-Guignard, 2010; Wardell, 2010).

Findings from more than 350 doctoral research projects applying the LPI presented a number of interesting conclusions, as highlighted below (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a:10)

- LPI scores are positively related to job satisfaction and employee commitment levels.
- Teachers from high-performing schools report consistently higher LPI scores for their principals than teachers from less effective schools.
- LPI scores of hospital managers are significantly correlated with constituent reports of workplace empowerment, job satisfaction and productivity.
- Effective bank managers have consistently higher LPI scores than less effective managers.

Findings such as these have been recorded all over the world. Studies in the USA, Canada, Mexico, Europe, Asia, Japan and Australia have revealed that job satisfaction, productivity and organisational commitment are significantly correlated with the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a).

4.10 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

The chapter provided an overview of leadership and its impact on quality, especially service quality. The first three sections introduced the concept of leadership and focused on the definition of leadership, the difference between leadership and management, effective leadership, leadership skills, responsibilities theories and styles. The remainder of the chapter dealt with leadership and quality and service quality and leadership in HE. The chapter concluded with a discussion on leadership measurement instruments with the main focus on the LPI instrument.

The study by Laohavichien *et al.* (2009) focused on the effects of transformational and transactional leadership on quality improvement. It was found that transformational leadership, and to a lesser extent, transactional leadership, impact positively on organisational performance. The conclusion of the study indicates that

a more quantitative approach to measuring customer quality ratings would be the next step in studying the leadership-quality relationship. As stated in chapter 1, section 1.4, of this study, the primary objective was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage, following a quantitative approach.

The next chapter deals with the research design of this study.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. Hence the impact of leadership as the independent variable on service quality as the dependent variable was studied. According to Salkind (2009), the dependent variable is the variable that is examined as the result of a research project, while the independent variable is the variable that is manipulated in order to examine its effect on the dependent variable. The two constructs that were investigated were service quality and leadership. As such, two instruments were used on two different populations. This chapter deals with the research design for the study. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) and Tustin *et al.* (2005), the research design is the blueprint or plan used to achieve the research objectives. In addition, Saunders *et al.* (2007) assert that the research design is the general plan for the research. It contains clear objectives, states the reasons for the selection of a particular organisation or department for the research, identifies the sources from which data will be collected and explains the research constraints and ethical issues. The first two sections of this chapter will describe the research strategy that was formulated and the data collection method, using two different instruments. The remainder of the chapter will focus on the data analysis, research quality and delimitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of research ethics.

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 5.1 below.

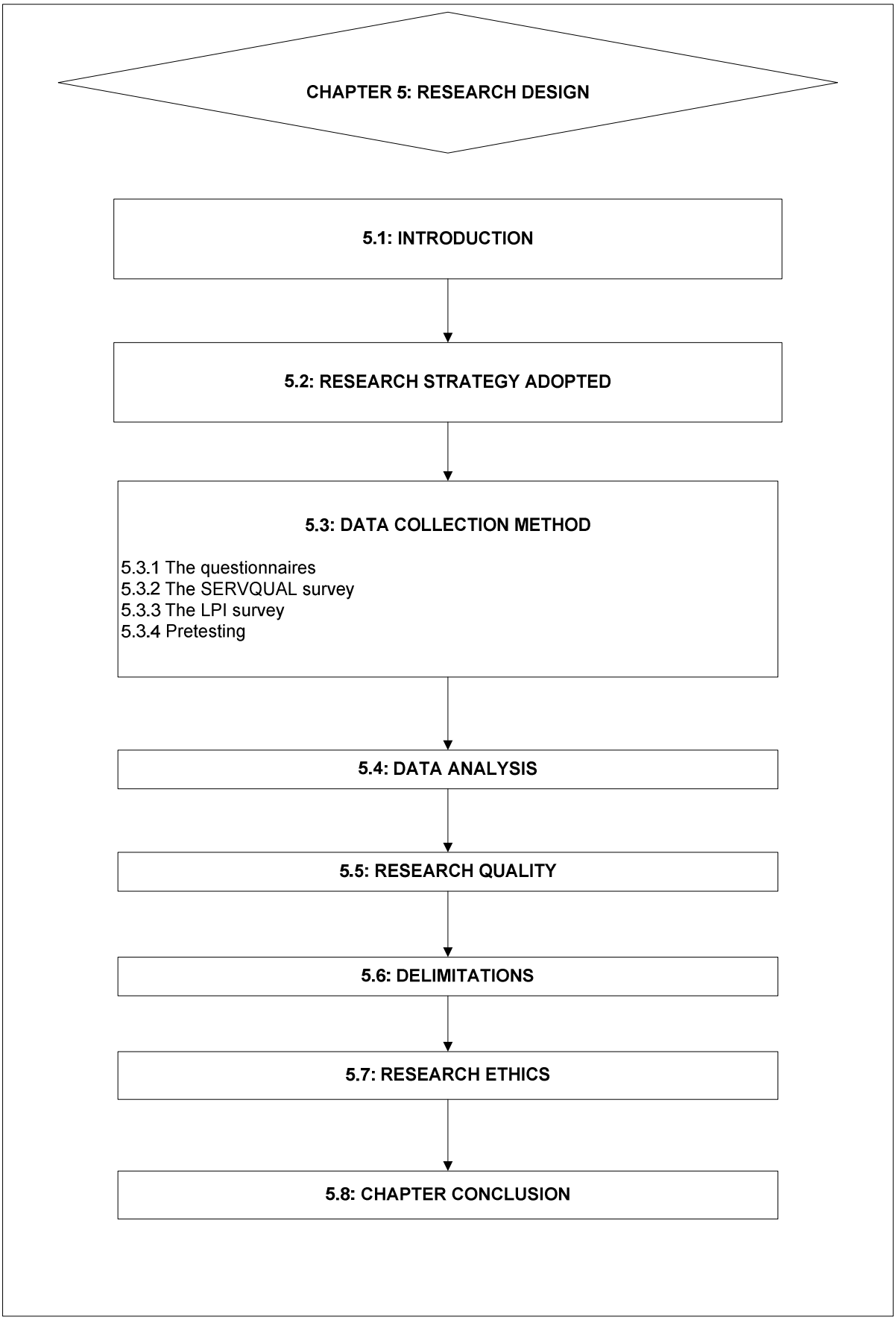

Figure 5.1: Layout of chapter 5

5.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY ADOPTED

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), the term "research philosophy" is the broad term referring to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. The research philosophy that the researcher follows contains vital assumptions about his or her view of the world. These assumptions will reinforce the research strategy and methods used in a study. This study was conducted within the positivist paradigm. Saunders *et al.* (2007:606) define positivism as "the epistemological position that advocates working with an observable social reality. The emphasis is on highly structured methodology in order to facilitate replication, and the end product can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists". The authors (2007) add that a positivist paradigm emphasises quantifiable observations with possible statistical analysis, as in the current study.

A deductive process was followed in this study. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:36), "deduction is a form of inference that purports to be conclusive – the conclusion must necessarily flow from the reasons given. These reasons are said to imply the conclusion and represent the truth." In order for deduction to be correct, it must be true and valid. The reasons for the conclusion must therefore be true and the conclusion must flow from the reasons. Added to this, Saunders *et al.* (2007) assert that in the deductive approach, literature is used to identify ideas or theories that will be tested by means of data. Hence a theoretical framework can be developed and tested with data. Saunders *et al.* (2007) add that deduction has several significant characteristics: (1) it is the search to explain fundamental relationships between variables; (2) a highly structured methodology is followed; (3) quantitative data are collected; (4) the researcher is independent of the study; and (4) the concepts need to be operationalised so that the facts can be measured quantitatively.

The data collection strategy in this study consisted of quantitative surveys to study leadership practices and service quality. Salkind (2009) reports that the characteristics of populations are studied through surveys. In addition, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) contend that survey research involves obtaining information such as attitudes or opinions from one or more groups of people by asking questions and tabulating answers. The goal is to acquire information about the larger population by

surveying a sample of that population. A survey is like a snapshot – a single-frame photograph of an on-going activity. This is in line with Saunders *et al.*'s (2007) view that a survey is usually associated with the deductive approach.

Two basic research methods have developed over the last 100 years, namely the longitudinal and cross-sectional methods (Salkind, 2009). The former studies a single group of people over a period of time, whereas the latter examines several groups of people at one point in time (i.e. a "snapshot") (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Salkind, 2009; Saunders *et al.,* 2007). Table 5.1 indicates the advantages and disadvantages of the cross-sectional method.

Table 5.1: The cross-sectional method

Research strategy	Advantages	Disadvantages
Cross-sectional method	• Inexpensive • Short time span • Low dropout rate • Requires no long-term administration or cooperation between staff and participants	• Limits comparability of groups • Gives no idea as to the direction of change that a group might take • Examines people of the same chronological age who may be of different maturational levels • Reveals nothing about the continuity of development on an individual basis

(Source: Adapted from Salkind, 2009:249)

With due consideration of the advantages and disadvantages indicated in table 5.1 above as well as the primary objective of this study, a cross-sectional design was followed in which the participants were surveyed at a specific point in time.

The focus of the following section will be on the data collection method employed in this study.

5.3 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

All the questionnaires were distributed to the five campuses of the “The College” and completed and returned electronically using an online survey system. This survey system had been used by the regulatory body of “The College” as part of its national customer survey during the second semester of 2008 and had proven to be a highly efficient platform for administering survey questionnaires.

The exceptionally high return rate (see section 5.3.2) can be attributed to both the user friendliness of the online survey system and the fact that calls for participation in such surveys made from “The College’s” regulatory body, is usually perceived positively. This positive sentiment, combined with the use of the online survey system and timing (August 2009–February 2010) of the data collection, ensured a high return rate.

5.3.1 The questionnaires

Two separate, existing and structured questionnaires were used to gather the service quality and leadership practices data for the study.

The following sections focus on the initial development, data collection and psychometric properties of the SERVQUAL and LPI questionnaires.

5.3.1.1 The SERVQUAL questionnaire

In chapter 3, section 3.7.2, it was indicated the original SERVQUAL statements were adapted to fit the profile of a PHE provider. Table 5.2 below provides a comparison of the original and the adapted SERVQUAL statements. Appendix A indicates the application of the adapted statements as part of the SERVQUAL questionnaire for the student respondents at the five PHE sites of delivery.

Table 5.2: Comparison of the original refined SERVQUAL statements and the adapted SERVQUAL statements applied in this study

Statement	The original refined SERVQUAL statements	The PHE adapted SERVQUAL statements
1.	XYZ has modern looking equipment.	The College has up-to-date equipment.
2.	XYZ's physical facilities are visually appealing.	The College physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish.
3.	XYZ's employees are neat appearing.	Personnel at the College are well-dressed and neat at all times.
4	Materials associated with the service (such as pamphlets or statements) are visually appealing at XYZ.	The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College.
5.	When XYZ promises to do something by a certain time, it does so.	When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so.
6.	When you have a problem, XYZ shows a sincere interest in solving it.	When students have problems, the personnel of the College are sympathetic and reassuring.
7.	XYZ performs the service right the first time.	The College is always dependable and renders the service right the first time.
8.	XYZ provides its services at the time it promises to do so.	The College provides services at the time it promises to do so.
9.	XYZ insists on error-free records.	The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)
10.	Employees of XYZ tell you exactly when services will be performed.	The College tells students when services will be rendered.
11.	Employees of XYZ give you prompt service.	Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College's personnel.
12.	Employees of XYZ are always willing to help you.	Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students.

13.	Employees of XYZ are never too busy to respond to your requests.	Personnel of the College are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests.
14.	The behaviour of employees of XYZ instills confidence in customers.	Students can trust the personnel of the College.
15.	You feel safe in your transactions with XYZ.	Personnel at the College inspire confidence.
16.	Employees of XYZ are constantly courteous to you.	Personnel at the College are polite.
17.	Employees of XYZ have the knowledge to answer your questions.	Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve their service provision.
18.	XYZ gives you individual attention.	Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students.)
19.	XYZ has operating hours convenient to all its customers.	Lecturers provide individual attention to students.
20.	XYZ has employees who give you personal attention.	Personnel of the College do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers).
21.	XYZ has your best interest at heart.	The College personnel have the student's best interests at heart.
22.	Employees of XYZ understand your specific needs.	The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.).

(Source: Adapted from Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1991:446-449)

The following sections will focus on the SERVQUAL's scale items, data collection, reliability, factor structure and validity, as developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1988).

a The generation of the scale items for the SERVQUAL model

Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) identified ten service quality dimensions (see section 3.7.1 in chapter 3) in the development of the original SERVQUAL instrument. These ten dimensions resulted in the generation of 97 items. These items were categorised into two statements, one to measure the expectation and the other to measure the perception of service quality for a specific organisation. The statements were arranged in a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). Approximately half of the statements were worded positively and the other half negatively. The “expectations” formed the first half of the instrument and “perceptions” the second half.

b Data collection and scale purification

The creation of the 97-item instrument consisted of two stages of data collection. The first stage involved (1) preserving only those items capable of discriminating across the respondents who had differing quality perceptions about the organisations in several categories; and (2) investigating the dimensionality of the scale and establishing the reliabilities of its components. The second stage consisted of re-evaluating the dimensionality and reliability of the scale through an analysis of the fresh data from four independent samples (Parasuraman *et al.,* 1988).

The first and second stages of data collection as well as SERVQUAL’s reliability, factor structure and validity will be described in more detail in the following sections, as reported by Parasuraman *et al.* (1988).

i Stage 1: data collection

Data were collected from a sample of 200 respondents for the initial refinement of the 97-item instrument. The respondents (25 years or older) were recruited in a shopping mall in a large metropolitan area. The sample was divided equally into male and female respondents, and were spread across five different service categories, namely appliance repair, retail banking, long-distance telephone, securities brokerage and credit cards. Only respondents who had used the service in question during the last three months qualified for the study. The respondents had to

complete the 97-item self-administered questionnaire consisting of a 97-item expectations part followed by a 97-item perceptions part.

ii Stage 1: scale purification

Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) refined the 97-item instrument by analysing the pooled data (data from all five service categories together). The aim of this stage was to develop an instrument for the reliable measuring of service quality in multiple service sectors, that is, an instrument that could be applied to measure service quality in general. Five of the original ten dimensions were retained, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, understanding/knowing customers and access. The other five dimensions of communication, credibility, security, competence and courtesy were combined into two dimensions. Thus the scale purification stage produced a 34-item scale with seven dimensions.

iii Data collection for stage 2

To further assess the 34-item scale and its psychometric properties, data were collected from four of the original five service categories, namely appliance repair, retail banking, long-distance telephone and credit cards (excluding security brokerage). The sample again consisted of 200 respondents (25 years or older) who had been recruited in a shopping mall in a large metropolitan area and were equally divided between male and female respondents. As in the first stage of data collection, only those respondents who used the service in question during the preceding three months qualified for the study.

iv Scale purification for stage 2

The main objective of this stage was to evaluate the robustness of the 34-item scale in the measurement of service quality of four the service organisations. The second stage scale purification process produced a refined 22-item scale with five dimensions, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, as discussed in section 3.5.2 in chapter 3.

c SERVQUAL model's reliability and factor structure

The 34-item scale with seven dimensions resulting from the first stage data set was then refined to a 22-item scale with five dimensions in the second stage of scale purification. This serves as an additional verification of the reliability and factor structure of the SERVQUAL instrument. The results of the reassessment authenticate the high dimensional distinctiveness and reliabilities of the instrument.

The procedure used to improve the instrument was guided by empirical criteria and the objective of developing an instrument that could be used to measure service quality in a variety of service organisations. The stable psychometric properties were indicated by the reliabilities and factor structure of the final 22-item scale and its five dimensions. Only the items that were relevant to all four of the service organisations were included. This indicates that the SERVQUAL instrument can be applied in a variety of service settings to measure and assess service quality. The instrument can be adapted by reworking the items under each of the five dimensions to make it more relevant to the service setting in which the instrument is applied.

d Assessment of the SERVQUAL model's validity

The assessment of a scale's content validity is essentially qualitative instead of quantitative. Parasuraman *et al.* (1988:28) confirm that it involves the investigation of the following two factors: "(1) the thoroughness with which the construct to be scaled and its domain were explicated and (2) the extent to which the scale items represent the construct's domain." Since the procedures applied in the development of the SERVQUAL instrument adhered to both these requirements, the instrument could be considered to possess construct validity. The instrument's validity was also measured by examining its convergent validity. The findings offered strong support for SERVQUAL's convergent validity. Lastly, the validity of SERVQUAL was assessed by examining whether the measured construct was empirically associated with measures of other conceptually related variables. All the findings confirmed the SERVQUAL instrument's validity.

The next section will elaborate on the LPI instrument.

5.3.1.2 The LPI questionnaire

In section 1.5.2.4 in chapter 1, it was mentioned that the LPI would be utilised to conduct this study. Appendices B, C and D provide the "LPI self" questionnaire, the "LPI observer" questionnaire and the "LPI invitation letter" respectively, as used in this study. As indicated in chapter 4, section 4.9.2, the responses were captured on a ten-point scale with behavioural anchors. For each statement, the respondent indicated how often the leader engaged with that particular behaviour. The responses ranged from 1 to 10. The scale items on the "LPI self" and "LPI observer" questionnaire were displayed as follows:

1 = almost never

2 = rarely

3 = seldom

4 = once in a while

5 = occasionally

6 = sometimes

7 = fairly often

8 = usually

9 = very frequently

10 = almost always

When analysing data from the MLQ, as discussed in chapter 5, it is stated that "the Leader form would naturally contain a bias, the Rater form is considered to be the more important of the two" (Transformational leadership, 2010). Similarly, Kouzes and Posner (2003a) state that in order to minimise bias, responses from the "LPI observer" are used for analyses instead of responses from the "LPI self". Hence for the purpose of this study, only the data from the "LPI observer" were used in the analyses of the impact of leadership practices on service quality. The focus of the sections below will be on the LPI's psychometric properties, including its validity and reliability as developed and reported by Kouzes and Posner (2003a).

a Psychometric properties of the LPI

As indicated in section 4.9.3 in chapter 4, the LPI has been extensively applied in various industries and has proven reliable to identify the behaviours of effective leaders. It consists of 30 statements and takes about ten minutes to complete. The LPI provides 360-degree feedback from one's manager, peers or direct reports. Based on data from over 200 000 respondents, the LPI continues to demonstrate sound psychometric properties (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a).

The LPI is highly regarded in both the academic and practitioner sectors. Over 250 000 leaders and close to 1 000 000 observers have completed it. Analysis and refinement of the instrument are ongoing. According to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), research spanning more than 20 years confirms the validity and reliability of the LPI and validates the five practices of exemplary leadership as a constant and reliable description of what leaders do to achieve extraordinary things in organisations. As in this study, these authors contend that many researchers have combined the five practices of exemplary leadership of the LPI to measure transformational leadership. This single measure was found to have acceptable psychometric properties and correlated with positive organisational outcomes (Kouzes & Posner, [s.a.])

i Reliability

According to Kouzes and Posner (2003a: 11), internal reliability is when "the extent to which items in a scale are associated with one another, is quite strong". All five leadership practices have strong internal reliability scores that are above 0.75 for the "self" version and above 0.85 for the "observer" version. Test-retest reliability scores are high in the 0.90 "plus" range (test-retest reliability will be explained in table 5.8 in section 5.5). This means that if the LPI is applied and then reapplied a few months later using the same or similar observers, the scores will be generally consistent. The tests also indicated that there is no social desirability unfairness (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a; Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

ii Validity

According to Kouzes and Posner (2003a:11), validity answers the following question: "*So what* difference do scores on the LPI make?" This question is answered empirically by considering how the LPI scores are correlated with other measures such as job satisfaction, employee commitment, work group productivity, credibility, sales performance and so forth. The five practices of the LPI are orthogonal, meaning they do not measure the same behaviour but five different practices. The LPI also has concurrent, face and predictive validity. Kouzes and Posner (2003a) add that concurrent validity means that high LPI scores are correlated with positive outcomes such as credibility or commitment to employees. Face validity means that the results make sense, while predictive validity means that the results can be used for predictions such as high or low performance. The results of the LPI, for instance, can distinguish between high-performing and low-performing leaders. Leadership behaviour as measured by the LPI is related to positive organisational outputs. These relationships have been found across industries and disciplines, in public and nonprofit organisations as well as in the private sector, regardless individual differences such as, gender, ethnicity, age and so forth. These findings are relatively consistent in countries around the world (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a; Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

5.3.2 The SERVQUAL survey

As stated in section 1.6.2 in chapter 1, "The College" is one of four business-related HE brands (trading divisions) belonging to one regulatory body. The scope of the study was focused on one of these brands, namely "The College" which has five delivery sites in three provinces – Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. "The College" has a total student population of 5 085 students (based on 2009 registration figures). This afforded the researcher an opportunity to gain a representative view of student experiences in the country and not merely in a specific region. Since "The College's" specific market is affected largely by government legislation such a study is imperative to ensure the survival of the institution.

According to Salkind (2009:89), a population is "a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalise the results of a study". Thus the population of this study comprised full-time students enrolled at the "The College's" five delivery sites.

The reason for the selection of “The College” over any of the other brands is based on various factors, which include but are not limited to the following:

- “The College’s” student profile is aligned with other PHE institutions (second language, previously disadvantaged students).
- “The College’s” national footprint is described in the previous section.
- “The College” has the largest number of students of all the service provider’s brands in excess of 5 000 students in this category.
- The CEO of “The College” welcomed this study and felt that it would add value in the long term.

For the purpose of the service quality survey, the units of investigation consisted of the five delivery sites, while the units of analysis were the students at the five sites.

Different sampling designs are appropriate for different situations. Sampling falls into two major categories: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling. In probability sampling, it can be specified in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. This is the main feature that sets probability sampling apart from nonprobability sampling. Probability sampling techniques include simple random, stratified random, proportional stratified, cluster and systematic sampling. However, in nonprobability sampling, there is no guarantee that each member of the population will be represented in the sample. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), the three common forms of nonprobability sampling include convenience, quota and purposive sampling. This study followed a probability sampling approach.

Proportional stratified sampling was used to select the target population (ideal number of respondents) to participate in the service quality survey. According to Tustin *et al.* (2003), the stratified sampling method implies that the population is divided into subgroups (strata), each with a specific characteristic and a random sample is then dawn from each subgroup. For the purpose of this study, the population was segmented according to the campuses across South Africa. Each stratum is in proportion to its size in the overall population, in this case, 5 085 students. A random sample was drawn from each stratum. Tables 5.3 and 5.4 indicate the advantages and disadvantages of the random sampling and stratified random sampling methods respectively.

Table 5.3: Random sampling

Type of sampling	When to use it	Advantage	Disadvantages
Simple random sampling	When the population members are similar to one another on important variables	Ensures high degree of representation	Time consuming and tedious

(Source: Adapted from Salkind, 2009:97)

Table 5.4: Stratified random sampling

Type of sampling	When to use it	Advantage	Disadvantages
Stratified sampling	When the population is heterogeneous and contains several different groups, some of which are related to the topic of the study	Ensures a high degree of representation of all the strata or layers in the population	Time consuming and tedious

(Source: Adapted from Salkind, 2009:97)

In line with table 5.3, Cooper and Schindler (2003) and Saunders *et al.* (2007) explain that in a simple random sample, each element has an equal probability of being selected in the sample.

The SERVQUAL instrument was used for the collection of service quality data. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), the research population consists of the group members who are being researched. The research population (actual number of respondents) of the service quality survey consisted of students from the five campuses, as indicated in table 5.5 below (n = 984). Although the number of realised respondents corresponds with the target population, the proportions of the various campuses differ.

Table 5.5: Student respondents per campus

	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Campus 1	104	10.6	10.6
Campus 2	276	28.0	38.6
Campus 3	336	34.1	72.8
Campus 4	148	15.0	87.8
Campus 5	120	12.2	100.0
Total	984	100.0	

The respondents (students) evaluated service quality on a Likert scale from 1 to 7, in in terms of their expectations and perceptions of the quality of service rendered at their campus. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), in a Likert scale, the respondent is asked how strongly he or she agrees or disagrees with a statement. Likert scales usually consist of four-, five-, six- or seven-point scales. In this study, a seven-point scale was used. The SERVQUAL instrument consists of 22 items (22 items for the perception section and 22 items for the expectation section) divided into five sections (the five dimensions of service quality), namely tangibles, responsiveness, reliability, assurance and empathy.

The research population of the SERVQUAL survey consisted of students from “The College’s” five delivery sites in Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The campuses are situated in Pretoria, Benoni, Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban.

In order to optimise feedback, the participants had sufficient exposure to provide meaningful feedback on their expectations and perceptions of the quality of their student experience at “The College”. First-year students (who had been enrolled at “The College” for longer than six months) and second-year students participated. The questionnaires were distributed electronically to the campuses via the online survey system (as explained in chapter 1, section 1.6.1) for students to complete. An agreement was reached with “The College’s” management regarding the completion of questionnaires. Students were allowed to complete the questionnaires during a

class session. The SERVQUAL questionnaire took about 15 minutes to complete. The respondents were not limited to students in the business faculty only, but included all students to prevent distorted results in terms of quality expectations and perceptions (all students have expectations and perceptions of quality, not only the students in the business faculty). Computer laboratory time was scheduled for all qualifications offered at “The College”, both for first- and second-year students. Lecturers in the computer laboratory facilitated a session that guided students through the completion of the online SERVQUAL questionnaire. Once it had been completed, it was stored on the server at the campus and sent back to the regulatory body of “The College”. An electronic dataset of the completed questionnaires was provided by the IT department of the “The College’s” regulatory body in Microsoft Excel format. This dataset was used for interpretation and analysis. The study was completed during the period of August 2009 to February 2010. At that time, the researcher was employed by the “The College’s” regulatory body as “Head of Programme: Business”. Hence access to the dataset and feedback on the progress of the survey were not deemed to be a limitation in the study.

The second part of this study entailed a leadership survey which is explained in the next section.

5.3.3 The LPI survey

In the same way as the campuses are concerned about the quality of their relationships with their students, leaders should seek feedback (positive and negative) on how they are doing with constituents. Leaders (principals) have multiple constituents, including managers, co-workers and direct reports. Only by analysing all these different perspectives can they learn to fully appreciate how they are viewed from various perspectives. With data from multiple perspectives they can see where there is consistency and inconsistency and agreement and disagreement about their strengths and weaknesses. Using this information they can then determine what and how to improve (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a). To this end, the LPI instrument was used in the leadership survey based on a literature review as discussed in section 4.9 in chapter 4.

Two LPI questionnaires (the “LPI self” and “LPI observer”) were used to collect data on the leadership practices of the campus principals.

The leaders, in this instance the campus principals, completed the “LPI self” (n = 5). This instrument required the leaders to rate themselves on the frequency with which they thought they engaged in each of the 30 behaviours (items) on a rating scale from 1 to 10. The 30 questionnaire items were based on the five practices of exemplary leadership as developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003a). These include modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart. Seven staff members (who were selected by the leader) as well as the leader’s manager completed the “LPI observer” (n = 40) questionnaire, rating their leader on the frequency with which they thought the principals engaged in each of the 30 behaviours (items), also on a rating scale from 1 to 10. The 30 questionnaire items of the “LPI observer” are also based on the five practices of exemplary leadership. The respondents indicated their relationship with the leader as manager, co-worker, direct report or other observer. All the observers’ feedback was anonymous except for that of the leaders’ manager. Both the “LPI self” and “LPI observer” questionnaires were completed in approximately ten minutes.

As in the case of the SERVQUAL questionnaire, all the questionnaires were distributed to the campuses electronically via the online survey system from “The College’s” regulatory body head office – five “LPI self” questionnaires (one for each principal) and 40 “LPI observer” questionnaires (seven constituents and one manager per principal). The questionnaires were also completed electronically, stored on the campus server and sent back to the regulatory body of “The College” where they were interpreted and analysed. Confirmation of cooperation was given by all five campuses for participation in the leadership survey. The study was conducted concurrently with the SERVQUAL study and completed during the period of August 2009 to February 2010.

Appendices E to I contain the “LPI self” and “LPI observer” results of the five campus principals. These results are discussed in more detail in chapter 6. Computerised scoring software which is part of the LPI assessment tool, provided feedback along a number of dimensions, including comparisons by the respondent category, rankings by frequency and variances between “self” and “observer” scores. For each principal,

a data summary of the five practices of exemplary leadership is provided in the above-mentioned appendices.

5.3.4 Pretesting

Various steps were taken to ensure the validity of the results. These included consultations with an expert in questionnaire design as well as teleconferences with the VPs (Vice Principals) of the five campuses to explain the questionnaires as well as the purpose and importance of the study. The expert in questionnaire design is employed as a senior data analyst at the Bureau for Market Research (BMR) at the University of South Africa. Because the aim of the pretest or pilot test of a survey instrument is to identify possible weaknesses in its design, it should be tested on elements of the target population and follow the same procedures that will be used in the data collection (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Both instruments (SERVQUAL and LPI) were pretested on respondents who fitted the profile of "The College's" students as well as the principals and their constituents. The pretest was conducted during July 2009. This was done to ensure that both instruments were understandable, which would then increase the reliability of the data collected.

5.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the LPI scoring software were used to perform and calculate all statistical procedures. Data were analysed by means of Cronbach's alpha as a measure of internal consistency, descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations, gap analysis, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) and the coefficient of determination (R^2). Demographic data provided additional information on and insight into participants in the survey.

The reliability of both the expectation and perception dimensions of the SERVQUAL instrument were calculated using Cronbach's alpha. Section 5.5 will elaborate on the validity and reliability of measuring instruments.

According to Salkind (2009), descriptive statistics can be used to describe some of the characteristics of the distribution of scores that have been collected such as the average score on one variable or the degree to which one score differs from another. Tustin *et al.* (2005:523) suggest that the purpose of descriptive statistics is to

- provide preliminary insights into the nature of the responses obtained, as reflected in the distribution of the values for each variable of interest
- help to detect errors in the coding and the data capturing processes
- provide a means of presenting the data in a transparent manner with tables and graphs
- provide summary measures of “typical” or “average” responses as well as the extent of variation in responses for a given variable
- provide an early opportunity for evaluating whether the distributional assumptions of subsequent statistical tests are likely to be satisfactory

Means and standard deviations were the descriptive statistics used in this study, based on the quantitative responses obtained from the two measuring instruments. The mean is the sum of a set of values divided by the number of the values and is usually accompanied by the standard deviation, which is the most common measure of variability. The standard deviation is the square root of the average amount that each of the individual values varies from the mean set of values (Salkind, 2009). Appendix S indicates the mean and standard deviation combined for all campuses as well as per individual campus respectively.

The LPI survey also provided additional information such as the period as principal for each of the five participants of the “LPI self” questionnaire. This information is provided in table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: Demographics of campus principals

	Campus 1	Campus 2	Campus 3	Campus 4	Campus 5
Duration of Service					
Years/months	9 months	5 years	2 years	4 years	3 years
Gender					
Female		♦	♦	♦	♦
Male	♦				
Race					
African	♦				
Asian					
Coloured					
Indian					
White		♦	♦	♦	♦

As indicated in table 5.6, the principal of Campus 1 had the least amount of experience as a principal on that particular campus, followed by the principal of Campus 3, Campus 5 and Campus 4. The principal of Campus 2 had the longest period of service, namely five years. The principal of Campus 1 was the only African male, while the principals of Campuses 1 to 4 were white females.

A gap analysis was performed on all 22 items of the SERVQUAL instrument. This was done for all five campuses individually in order to calculate the mean of the service quality gap. The mean of the five practices of exemplary leadership of the LPI instrument were also determined for each of the five principals. This was done with the aid of the LPI scoring software. In addition, the Pearson product moment correlation (usually represented by the letter *r*) was used to measure the relationship between leadership practices and service quality for "The College's" five campuses. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was also used to calculate the proportion of variance. Saunders *et al.* (2007) explain that the Pearson product moment correlation (*r*) is a statistical measure indicating the strength of the linear relationship between two quantifiable data variables. A correlation coefficient helps to determine the strength of the linear relationship between two ranked or quantifiable variables. This coefficient (*r*) can take any value between -1 and +1. A value of +1 signifies a perfect positive linear correlation which means that two variables are precisely

related, and as the value of the one variable increases, so does the value of the other. However, the value of -1 signifies a perfect negative correlation. This also means that two variables are precisely related, but as the values of one variable increases, so do the values of the other decrease. Table 5.7 classifies the strength of positive or negative correlations:

Table 5.7: Strength of positive or negative correlations

Positive correlations between:	Strength	Negative correlations between:	Strength
0.8 and 1.0	Very strong	**-0.8 and -1.0**	Very strong
0.6 and 0.8	Strong	**-0.6 and -0.8**	Strong
0.4 and 0.6	Moderate	**-0.4 and -0.6**	Moderate
0.2 and 0.4	Weak	**-0.2 and -0.4**	Weak
0.0 and 0.2	Very weak	**0.0 and -0.2**	Very weak

(Source: Adapted from Salkind, 2009:204)

In support of table 5.7, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) assert that the strength of the relationship is indicated by the size of the correlation coefficient. If two variables are closely related with a strong correlation, knowing the level of one variable allows one to predict the other variable with considerable accuracy. However, Tustin *et al.* (2005) point out that the researcher can go beyond the calculation of the correlation coefficient and calculate the proportion of the variance explained by a specific model. R^2 is known as the coefficient of determination. In support of this, Saunders *et al.* (2007) state that the coefficient of determination (R^2) can take on any value between 0 and +1. This measures the proportion of the variation in a dependent variable, in this study service quality, that can be explained statistically by the independent variable (leadership). This could show the strength of a relationship in nonlinear cases too.

5.5 RESEARCH QUALITY

It was indicated in section 5.3.1.1 and 5.3.1.2 that both the SERVQUAL and LPI demonstrated the psychometric properties of reliability (consistency from one measurement to the next) and validity (accurate measurement of the concepts) consistent with the literature findings. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a

measure is reliable if it supplies consistent results. Saunders *et al.* (2007) and Leedy and Ormrod (2010) also assert that reliability is the degree to which the data collection techniques will produce consistent results when the unit being measured has not changed. Salkind (2009) provides synonyms such as "dependable", "consistent", "stable", "trustworthy", "predictable" and "faithful" to help explain the term "reliability". Table 5.8 below provides reliability estimates as identified by Cooper and Schindler (2003).

Table 5.8: Reliability estimates

Type	Coefficient	What is measured
Test-retest	Stability	Reliability of a test or instrument inferred from examinee scores. Same test is administered twice to same subjects over an interval of less than six months.
Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency	Degree to which instrument items are homogeneous and reflect the same underlying construct(s).

(Source: Adapted from Cooper & Schindler, 2003:237)

To underscore the information provided by Cooper and Schindler (2003) in table 5.8, Gliem and Gliem (2003) explain that Cronbach's alpha, also referred to as the alpha coefficient and coefficient alpha, is a measure of the internal consistency of a set of items comprising a scale. Besides reporting the coefficient only, it is also essential in providing a description of the measures (including means and standard deviations) used to derive the reliabilities. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. However, there is actually no lower limit to the coefficient. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale will be. The following rules of thumb can be applied:

Table 5.9: Rules of thumb for Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Internal consistency
> 0.9	Excellent
> 0.8	Good
> 0.7	Acceptable
> 0.6	Questionable
> 0.5	Poor
< 0.5	Unacceptable

(Source: Adapted from Gliem & Gliem, 2003:87)

It should also be noted that an alpha of 0.8, as indicated in table 5.9 as "good" internal consistency, is a reasonable goal. In support of this, Salkind (2009) maintains that a value of 1.00 indicates perfect reliability and a value of 0.00 no reliability at all. Again, in line with table 5.7, Salkind (2009) and Leedy and Ormrod (2010) assert that test-retest reliability examines consistency over time, that is, the extent to which an instrument provides the same results over time. Internal consistency (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) is the extent to which all the items in an instrument produce the same results.

However, according to Saunders *et al. (*2003:150), validity "is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about". In addition, Salkind (2009) contends that an instrument is valid if it actually measures what it is supposed to measure. Synonyms for validity include "truthfulness", "accuracy", "authenticity", "genuineness" and "soundness". Table 5.10 depicts three types of validity that are used to establish the authenticity of an assessment tool.

Table 5.10: Types of validity

Type of validity	What is it	How do you establish it
Content	A measure of how well the items represent the entire universe of items	Ask an expert if the items assess what you want them to assess
Criterion		
Concurrent	A measure of how well a test estimates a criterion	Select a criterion and correlate scores on the test with scores on the criterion in the present
Predictive	A measure of how well a test predicts a criterion	Select a criterion and correlate scores on the test with scores on the criterion in the future
Construct	A measure of how well a test assesses some underlying construct	Assess the underlying construct on which the test is based and correlate these scores with the test scores

(Source: Salkind, 2009:118)

In support of table 5.10, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) argue that the validity of a measuring instrument is the degree to which it measures what it intended to measure.

As mentioned in the first paragraph of this section, both SERVQUAL and the LPI questionnaires have proven to be reliable and valid measuring instruments. The last two sections of this chapter will focus on the delimitations and research ethics of this study.

5.6 DELIMITATIONS

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), delimitations can be defined as what the researcher is not going to do. In this study, data were only collected from one of the four brands of the regulatory body, namely “The College”. The other three brands

were thus excluded from the study. Further research will be required to determine whether the findings of this study could be extended and made applicable to other PHE providers in South Africa.

5.7 RESEARCH ETHICS

Research ethics, according to Saunders *et al.* (2003: 606), can be defined as "the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of the research project, or who is affected by it". Leedy and Ormrod (2010) contend that most ethical issues in research fall into one of the following four categories:

(1) Protection from harm – participants should not be exposed to unnecessary physical or psychological harm.
(2) Informed consent – when people are recruited to take part in a research study, they should be informed about the nature of the study and given a choice to either participate or not participate.
(3) Right to privacy – the nature and quality of a participant's performance should be kept confidential.
(4) Honesty with professional colleagues – findings should be reported in an honest manner without misrepresentation or misleading others about the nature of the findings.

Every effort was made to adhere to the above four categories during the duration of this study. The research proposal for this study was submitted to the director of "The College's" regulatory body to gain approval prior to the commencement of the study. A verbal agreement was entered into with the director of "The College's" regulatory body relating to the fact that the data of both the SERVQUAL and LPI surveys would be used for academic purposes only, and that it would not be utilised as part of a commercial initiative. This agreement included a confidentiality clause stating that "The College", the regulatory body and the other brands of the regulatory body would remain anonymous for the purpose of this study. In addition, the purpose of the study was clearly articulated so that parties involved understood the nature of the study as well as its possible impact on them. The participants had the right to ask questions and request a copy of the findings. Except for the "LPI self" questionnaire, all the

respondents for both the SERVQUAL and LPI surveys were anonymous and their responses treated in strict confidence. Finally, care was taken not to misrepresent the findings to meet the intended purpose of the study.

Permission was granted by the publishers of the LPI instrument, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., to buy and use the LPI survey instrument for this study. This permission was granted on the basis of an executive summary that was provided to them explaining the scope and purpose of the study. The conditions for approval were communicated via e-mail by the publisher's contracts manager.

5.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This study followed a quantitative approach. A study of service quality and leadership practices was conducted by means of reliable and valid measuring instruments, namely the SERVQUAL and LPI questionnaires. Surveys were sent to the participants electronically and the responses stored on a central server for analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 5 introduced the research design and methodology to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa. The first three sections focused on the research strategy, the data collection methods and the data analysis. The chapter then considered research quality, delimitations and research ethics. The theme of this chapter was determining the impact of leadership practices on service quality by calculating the correlation between the LPI composite mean and SERVQUAL composite mean for each campus. This will be elaborated on in chapters 6 and 7. Chapter 6 discusses the analysis of the data from the surveys and the population described in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 indicated that the primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in the HE environment in South Africa, and more specifically, the PHE environment. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 involved the literature review for the study and included discussions of the PHE environment, service quality and leadership respectively. In chapter 5, the research design and plan were explained and this included a discussion on how the research objectives would be achieved. This chapter deals with the empirical findings of the research plan as elucidated in chapter 5 in order to address the research objectives for the study. The first two sections of this chapter focus on the reliability analysis of the SERVQUAL and LPI instruments as well as descriptive statistics including the student respondents' programme and year of study. Service quality expectations versus service quality perceptions also form part of this section. A detailed service quality gap analysis per individual campus and for "The College" as a whole will then be conducted.

The remainder of this chapter focuses on the calculation of the mean and standard deviation as well as the correlation analysis between leadership practices and service quality. The strength of the linear relationship between these two constructs (leadership and service quality) is explained by means of Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient and the coefficient of determination. The chapter concludes with a data summary of the LPI as well as a visual representation of the impact of leadership practices on service quality.

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 6.1 below.

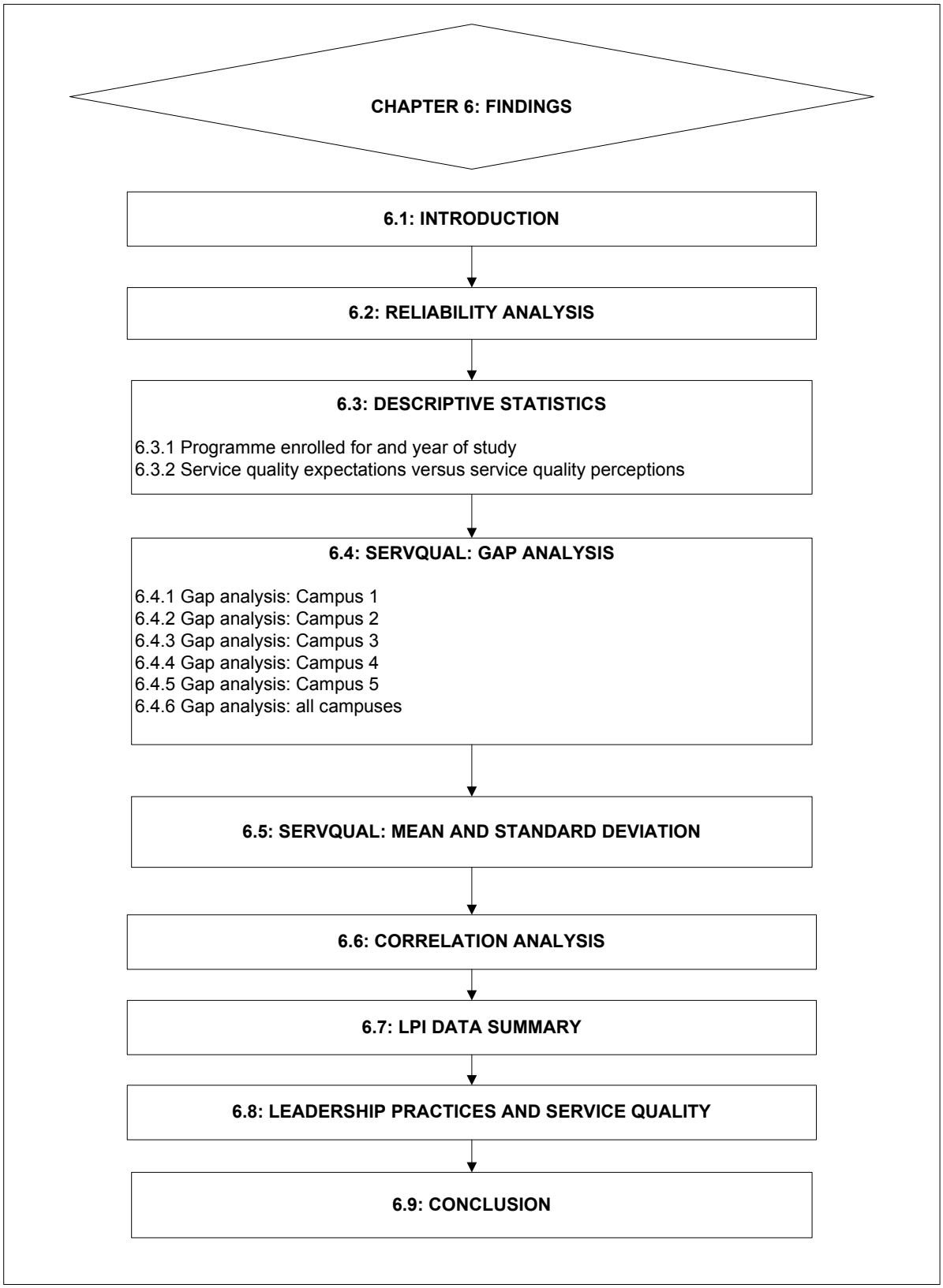

Figure 6.1: Layout of chapter 6

6.2 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

As stated in section 5.5 in chapter 5, reliability is the degree to which the data collection techniques will produce consistent results when the unit being measured has not changed. Synonyms such as “dependable”, “consistent”, “stable”, “trustworthy”, “predictable” and “faithful” are used to explain the term “reliability” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Salkind, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2007). In addition, Gliem and Gliem (2003) explain that Cronbach’s alpha is a measure of the internal consistency of a set of items comprising a scale. The closer Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale will be. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 below represent the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for both the expectation and perception dimensions of the SERVQUAL instrument.

Table 6.1: Reliability statistics for expectation dimensions

Dimension	Cronbach’s alpha	N of Items
Tangibles	.773	4
Reliability	.856	5
Responsiveness	.790	4
Assurance	.888	4
Empathy	.854	5
Overall	*.953*	*22*

Table 6.2: Reliability statistics for perception dimensions

Dimension	Cronbach’s alpha	N of Items
Tangibles	.837	4
Reliability	.913	5
Responsiveness	.863	4
Assurance	.930	4
Empathy	.897	5
Overall	*.971*	*22*

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 indicate that all the scales for both the expectation and perception dimensions demonstrate acceptable internal consistency.

In line with Kouzes and Posner's (2003a) finding, as indicated in chapter 5, section 5.3.1.2a, all five leadership practices have strong internal reliability scores that are above 0.75 for the "self" version and above 0.85 for the "observer" version.

Considering the rules of thumb proposed by Gliem and Gliem (2003) in table 5.9 in chapter 5, the reliability for both the SERVQUAL and LPI insttruments can be described as varying between "good" and "excellent".

6.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

According to Salkind (2009), descriptive statistics can be used to describe some of the characteristics of the distribution of scores that have been collected, such as the average score on one variable or the extent to which one score differs from another. The sections below describe the respondents' "programme enrolled for and year of study". The service quality expectations versus service quality perceptions per campus are also included.

6.3.1 Programme enrolled for and year of study

Figure 6.2 indicates the distribution of respondents among the various programmes offered at the PHE provider as a single group.

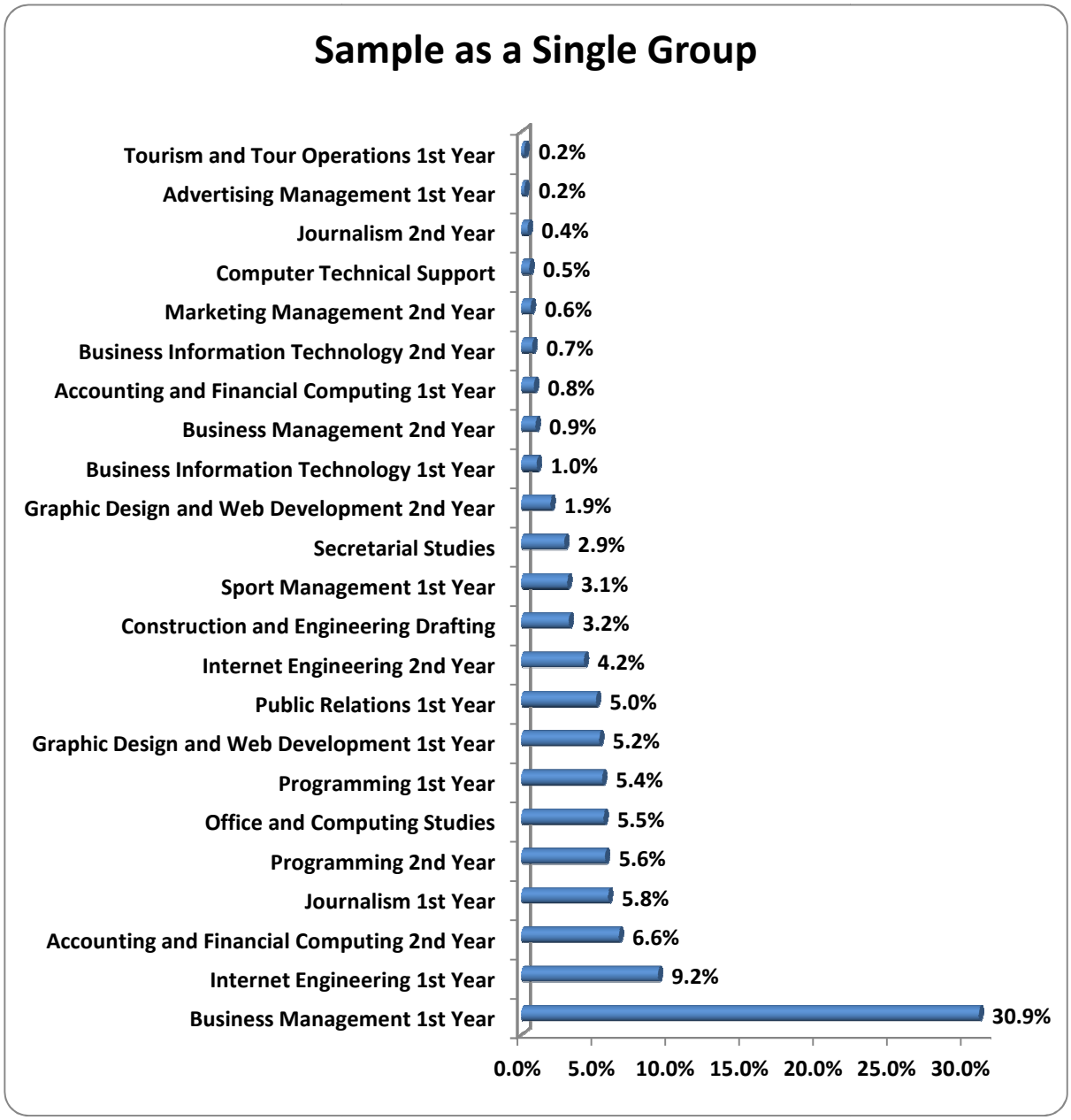

Figure 6.2: Programme enrolled for and year of study – all campuses

As indicated in figure 6.2, the largest group of respondents were enrolled for the first year of Business Management. The data in figure 6.2 are supported by the information in Appendix J.

6.3.2 Service quality expectations versus service quality perceptions

Figure 6.3 below shows that for all campuses, on average, the expectations were consistently higher than the perceptions. This is supported by the information in Appendices K and L. The information in these appendices shows the proportions of respondents who selected different ratings (1 to 7) to indicate how high their expectations and perceptions were regarding the different aspects of the different dimensions of service quality.

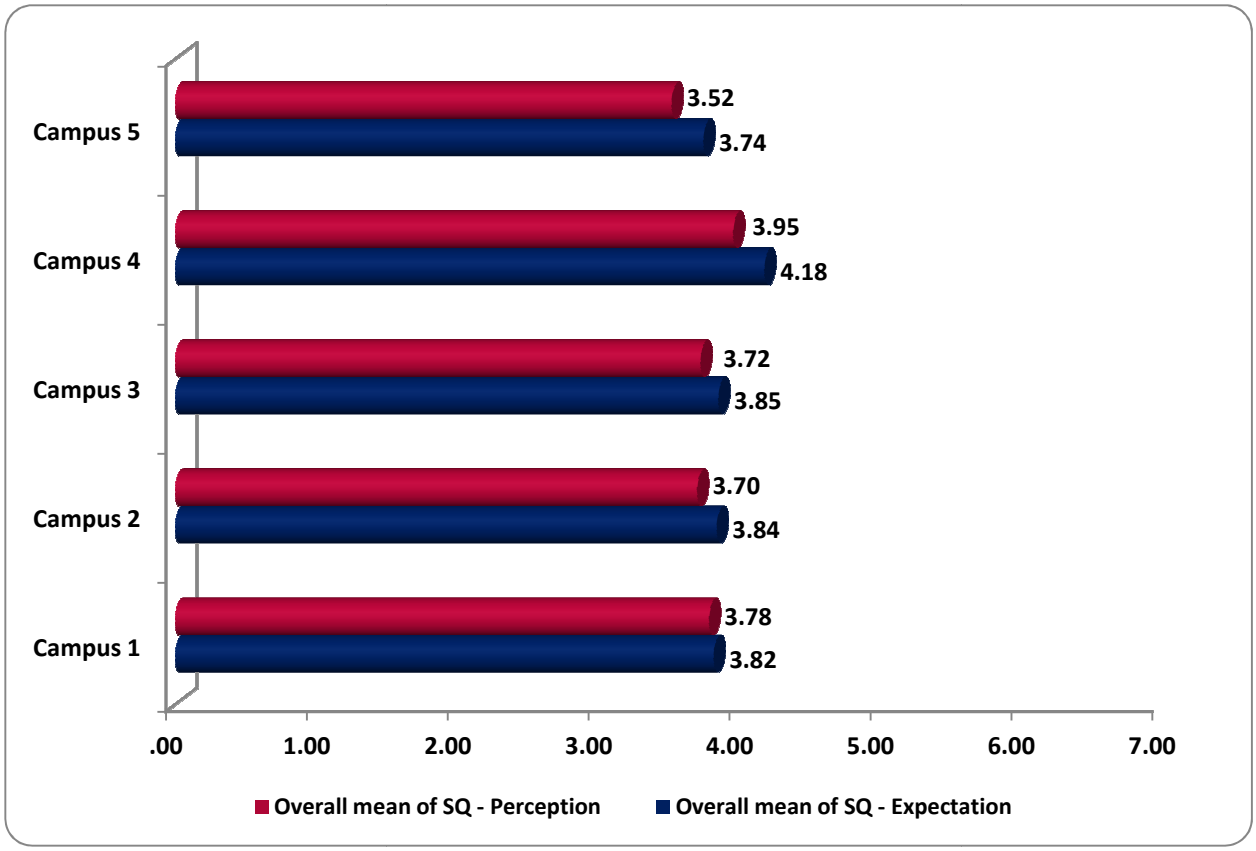

Figure 6.3: Service quality expectations versus perceptions

It is evident from figure 6.3 that for all the campuses, the level of service quality was lower than the respondents expectations of service quality. Campus 1 shows the smallest service quality gap of -0.03, while Campus 5 represents the largest gap of -0.22.

6.4 SERVQUAL: GAP ANALYSIS

The service quality gap is calculated by subtracting the service quality expectation from the perceptions of respondents and then calculating the mean gap score for each service quality dimension. As indicated in chapter 3, section 3.7.2, the SERVQUAL instrument comprises five service quality dimensions, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The survey respondents (students) completed the questionnaire in one section measuring the expectations of the 22 questions and then another section measuring the perceptions of the same 22 questions. For each question, the student rated, on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) whether or not they agreed with each statement. The SERVQUAL score was then calculated as the difference between the perception and expectation scores of actual service delivery (perception – expectation or P – E). This is referred to as the service quality gap.

The sections below calculate the level of service quality for each of the five dimensions for each campus individually, as well as for “The College” as a whole. This was done by taking the average score across the questions for that dimension and then calculating the overall score.

6.4.1 Gap analysis: Campus 1

Figures 6.4 to 6.9 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for Campus 1. The gap analysis data of Campus 1 for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix N.

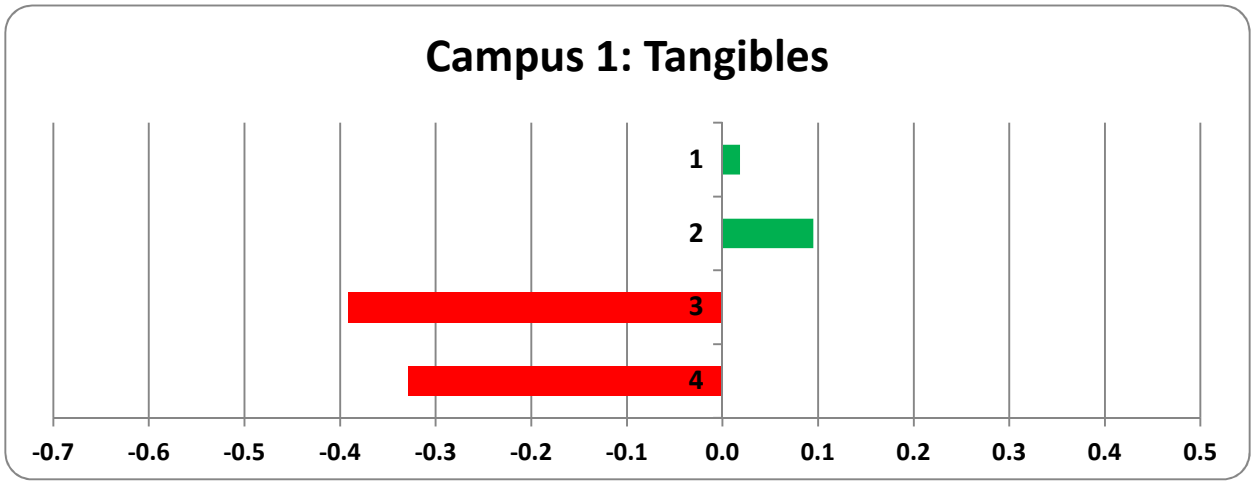

Figure 6.4: Gap analysis of tangibles across Campus 1

Figure 6.4 indicates that Campus 1 was positively perceived in terms of its attractiveness and the visual appeal of the physical facilities and the fact that it has up-to-date equipment (for which the perception exceeds the expectation). However, this is not supported by the way the personnel dress (they are expected to dress professionally, but the perception was that they do not) and the quality of their materials (expected to suit the image of "The College", whereas the perception was that the quality did not suit its image).

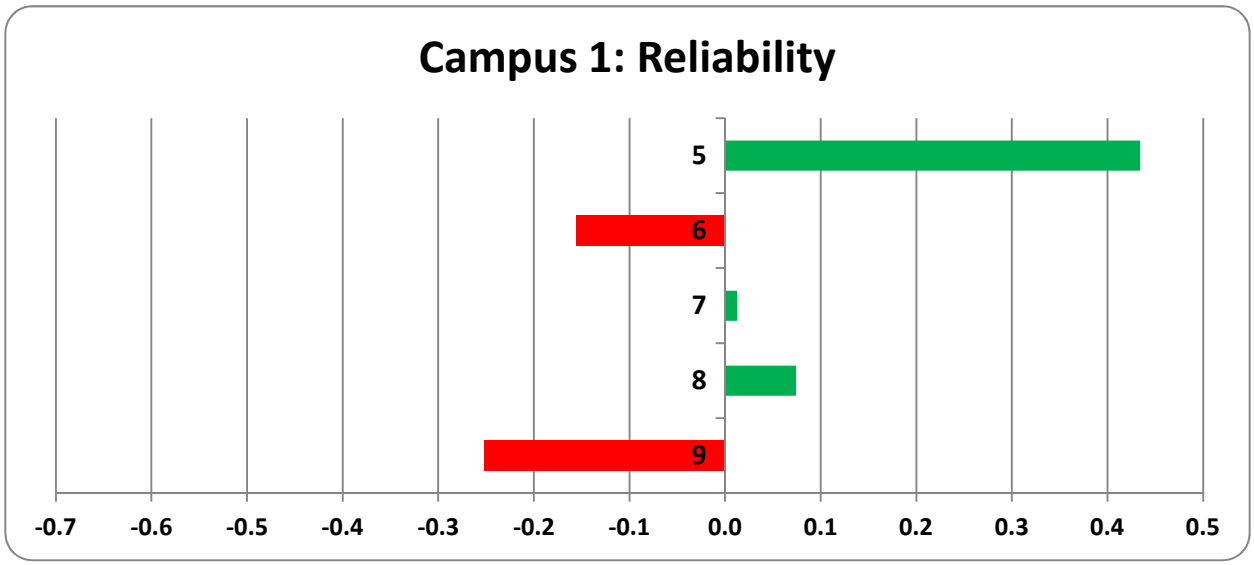

Figure 6.5: Gap analysis of reliability across Campus 1

Figure 6.5 indicates that at Campus 1, “The College” can be trusted to do what its promises correctly and on time, but that it does appear to have problems with recordkeeping, and the personnel are not as sympathetic and reassuring as they are expected to be.

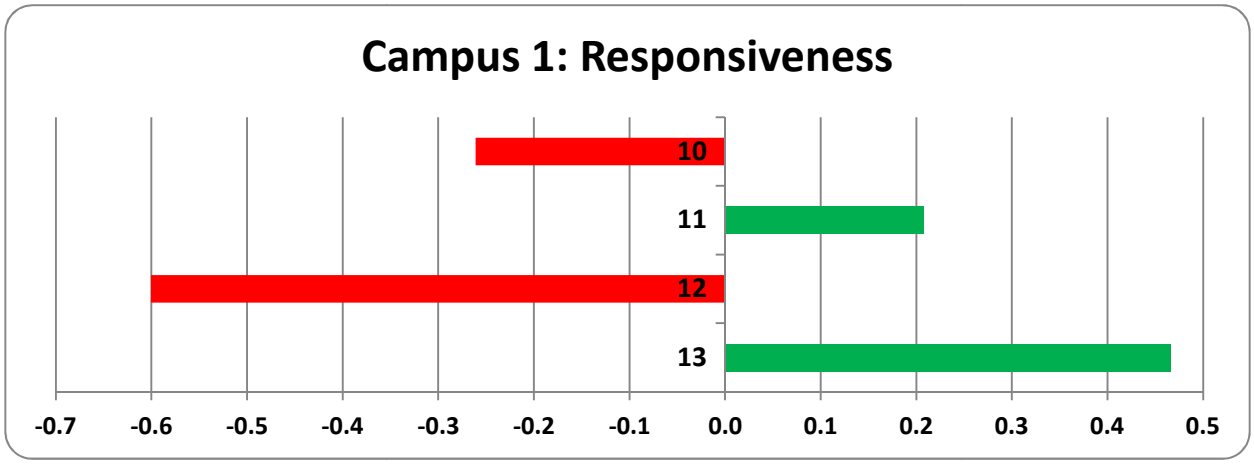

Figure 6.6: Gap analysis of responsiveness across Campus 1

Figure 6.6 indicates that the lecturers at Campus 1 are not perceived to be willing to assist students as expected and that students are also not informed when services will be rendered. Regarding the promptness of service delivery and responses to student requests by The College’s personnel, the perception was higher than the expectation.

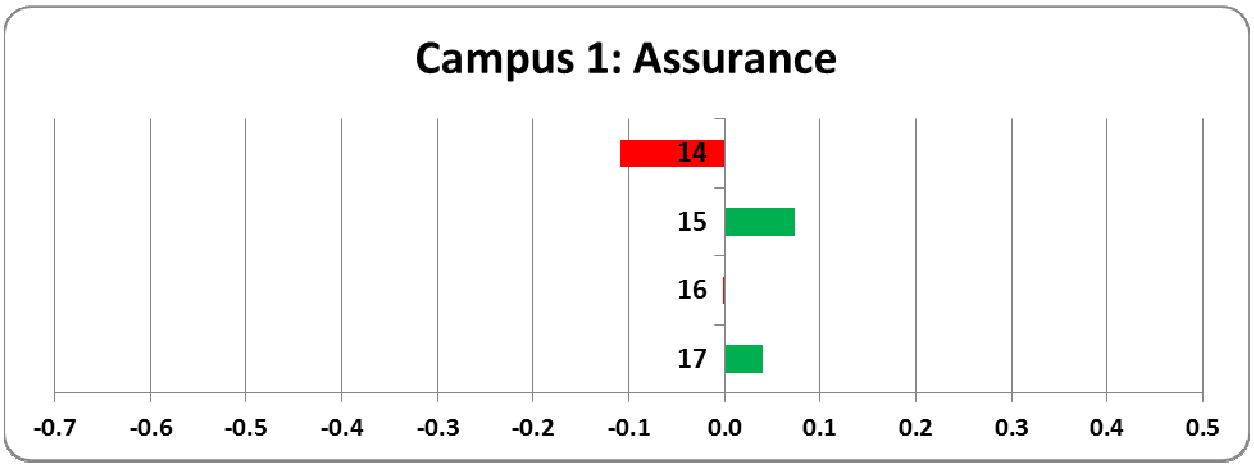

Figure 6.7: Gap analysis of assurance across Campus 1

Figure 6.7 indicates that the expectation of politeness at Campus 1 was on a par with the students' perceptions. Personnel at Campus 1 appear to inspire confidence in their students and they are perceived to be well supported by management to enable them to improve their performance and the quality of their service delivery. However, the personnel at Campus 1 were not perceived to be trustworthy.

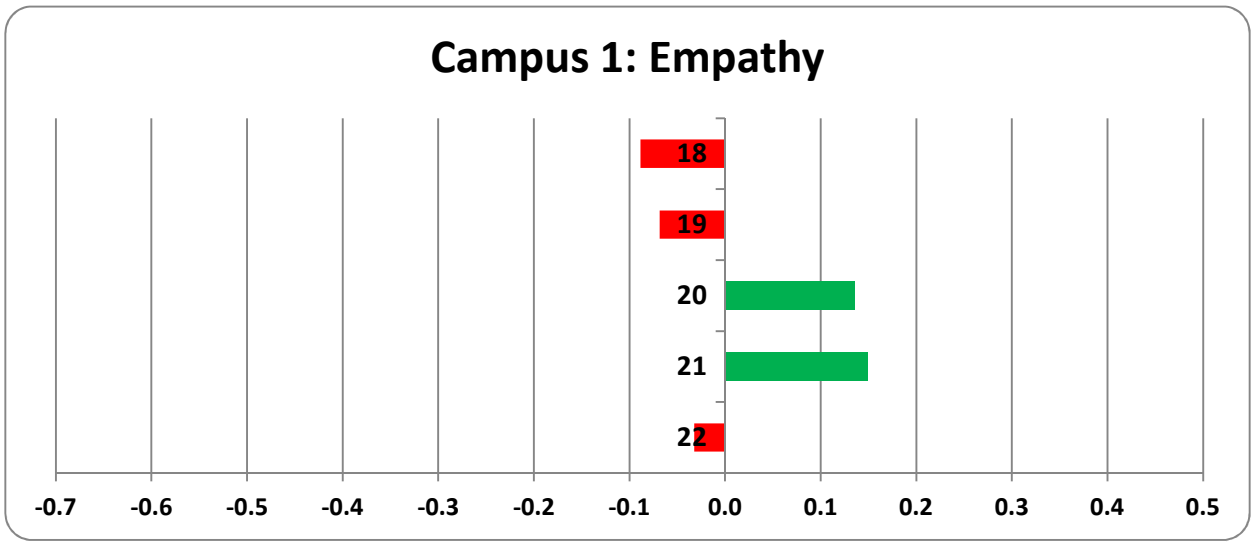

Figure 6.8: Gap analysis of empathy across Campus 1

According to the data depicted in figure 6.8, it would seem that even though Campus 1 was perceived to recognise the needs of the students and indeed have their best interests at heart, their personnel were perceived not to project this goodwill by performing below the expected level of service to students owing to their perceived unwillingness to show empathy with individual student needs, lack of individual attention to students and the perceived inaccessibility of the personnel.

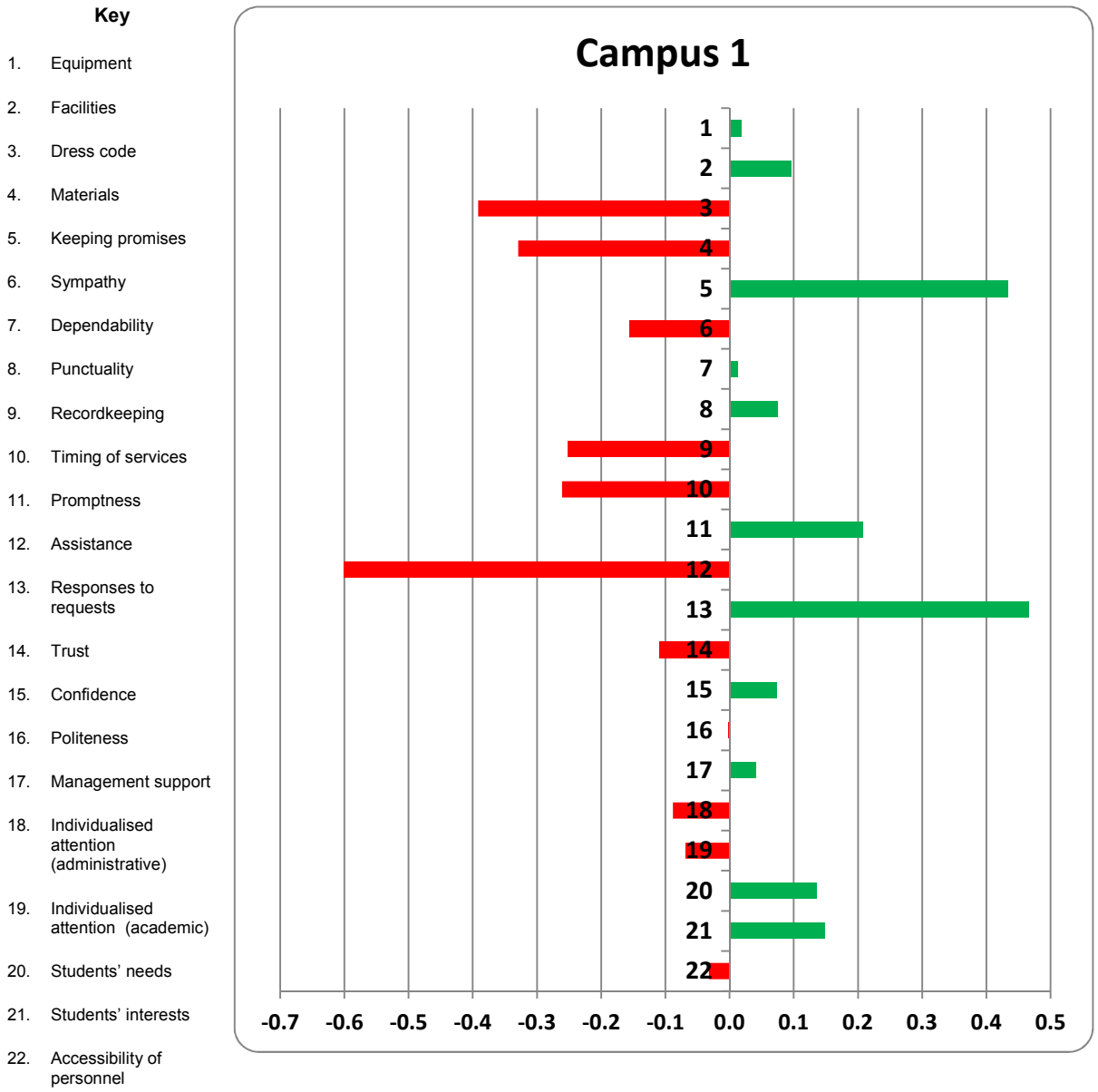

Figure 6.9: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 1

According to the data as depicted in figure 6.9 and underscored by the information contained in Appendix N, it is evident that, on average, the perceptions of the respondents on Campus 1 exceeded their expectations the furthest regarding personnel being not too busy to respond to students' requests promptly, followed by their trust that The College would deliver what it promised on time. On average, the respondents' expectations exceeded their perceptions the most regarding lecturers' willingness to assist students, followed by the dress code for personnel and the quality of the materials used at Campus 1 of "The College".

6.4.2 Gap analysis: Campus 2

Figures 6.10 to 6.15 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for Campus 2. The gap analysis data for Campus 2 for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix O.

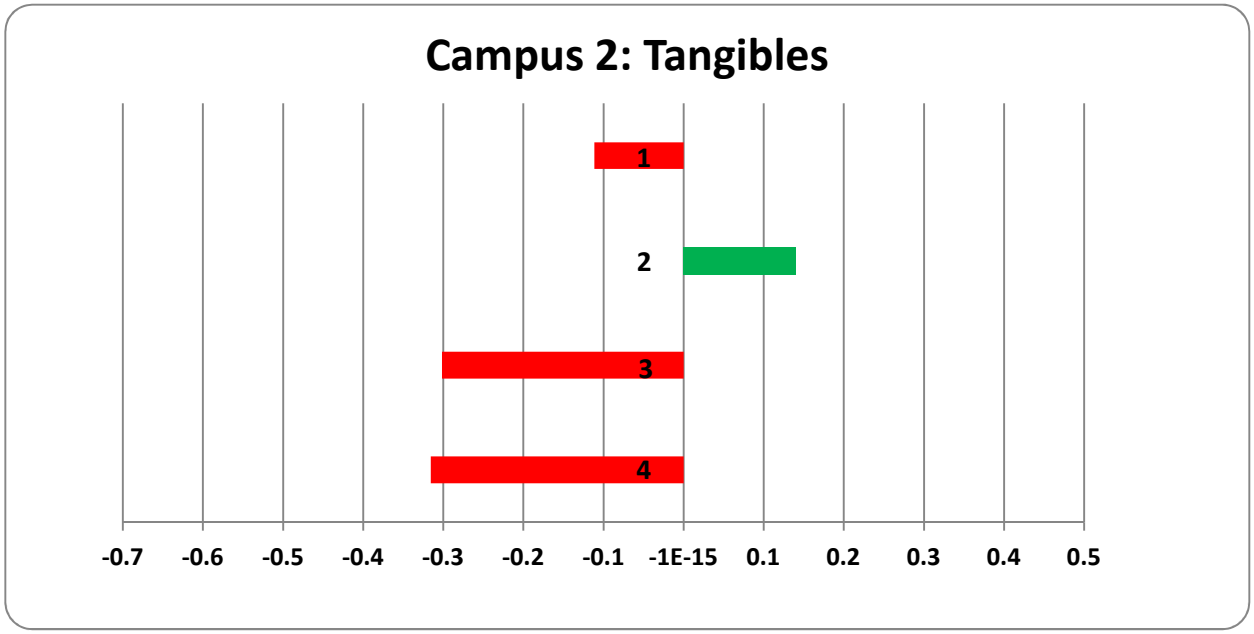

Figure 6.10: Gap analysis of tangibles across Campus 2

According to the data depicted in figure 6.10, Campus 2 appears to be positively perceived regarding the visual appeal of its physical facilities. However, there was a negative perception of the campus regarding the dress code of personnel, whether or not the materials suit the image of “The College” and the contemporaneousness of the equipment.

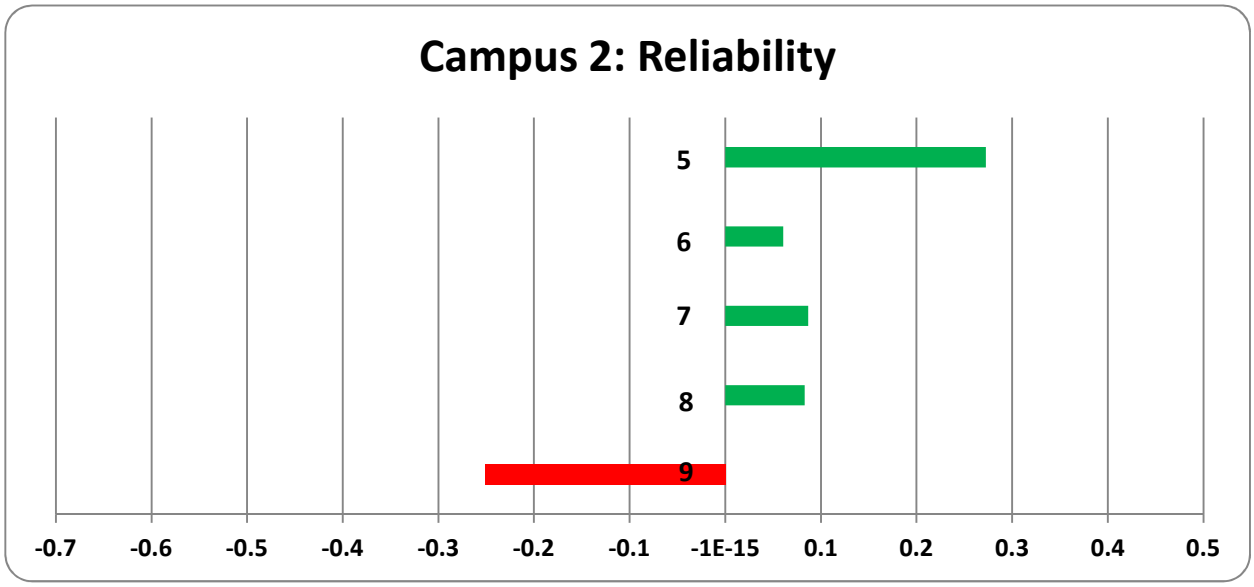

Figure 6.11: Gap analysis of reliability across Campus 2

Figure 6.11 indicates that at Campus 2, students' perceptions exceeded their expectations with respect to all aspects of reliability except in relation to accurate recordkeeping.

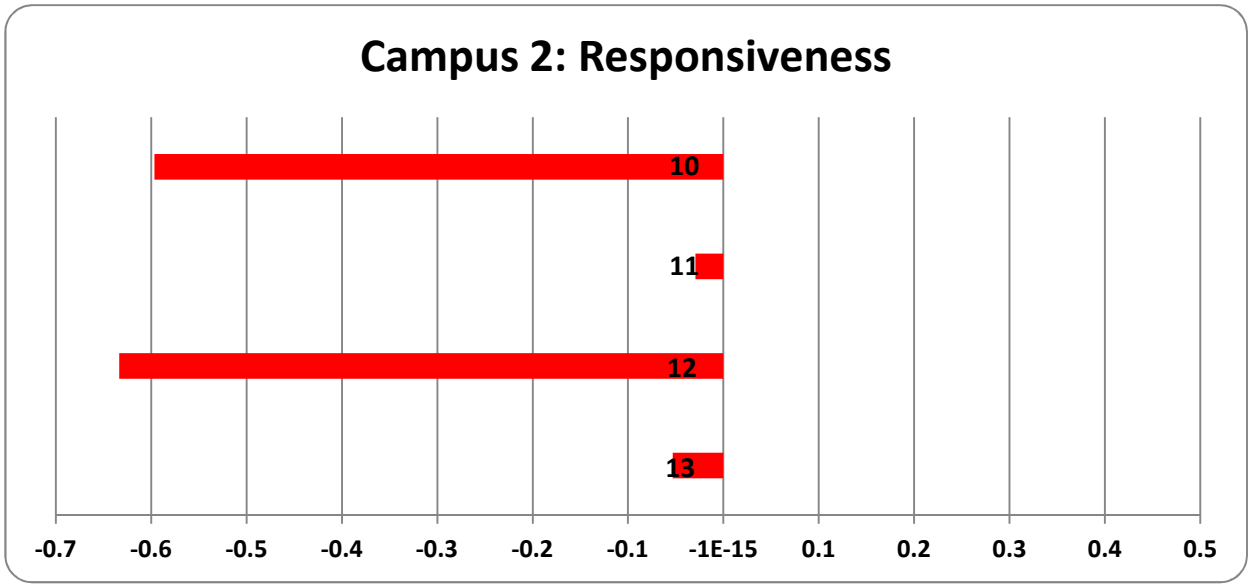

Figure 6.12: Gap analysis of responsiveness across Campus 2

According to figure 6.12, Campus 2 was not perceived to perform according to expectations in relation to any of the aspects of responsiveness. In addition, Campus

2 was perceived to perform the worst in the lecturers' willingness to assist students and inform them when services will be rendered.

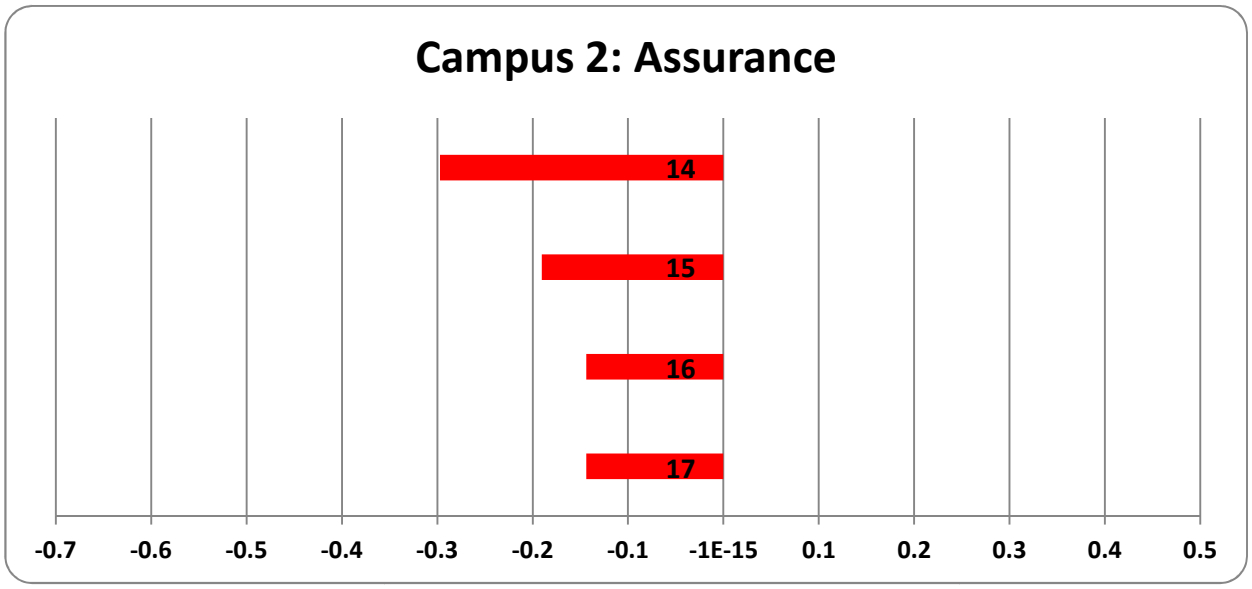

Figure 6.13: Gap analysis of assurance across Campus 2

According to the information in figure 6.13, it would seem that at Campus 2 the students' expectations of all aspects of assurance are higher than their perceptions, with the campus faring the worst when it comes to trusting the personnel.

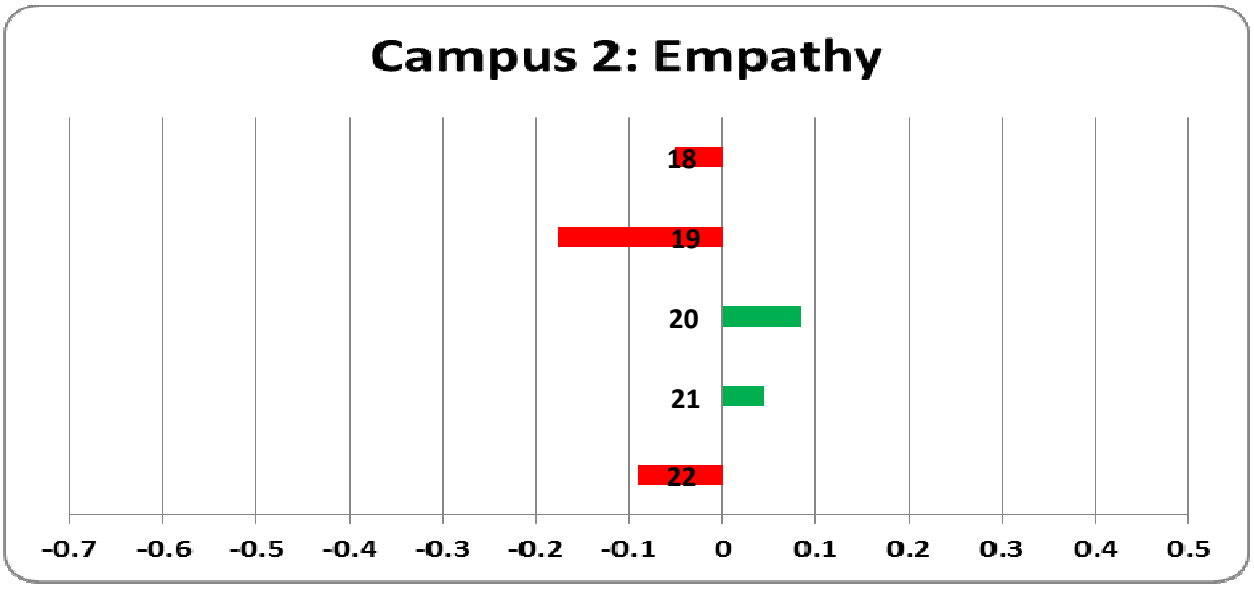

Figure 6.14: Gap analysis of empathy across Campus 2

Figure 6.14 indicates that even though the personnel of Campus 2 were perceived to know what the needs of the students are and they do have students' best interests at heart, the lecturers and the administrative personnel are perceived not to give individual attention to students. In fact, the personnel at Campus 2 do not seem to be easily accessible to students.

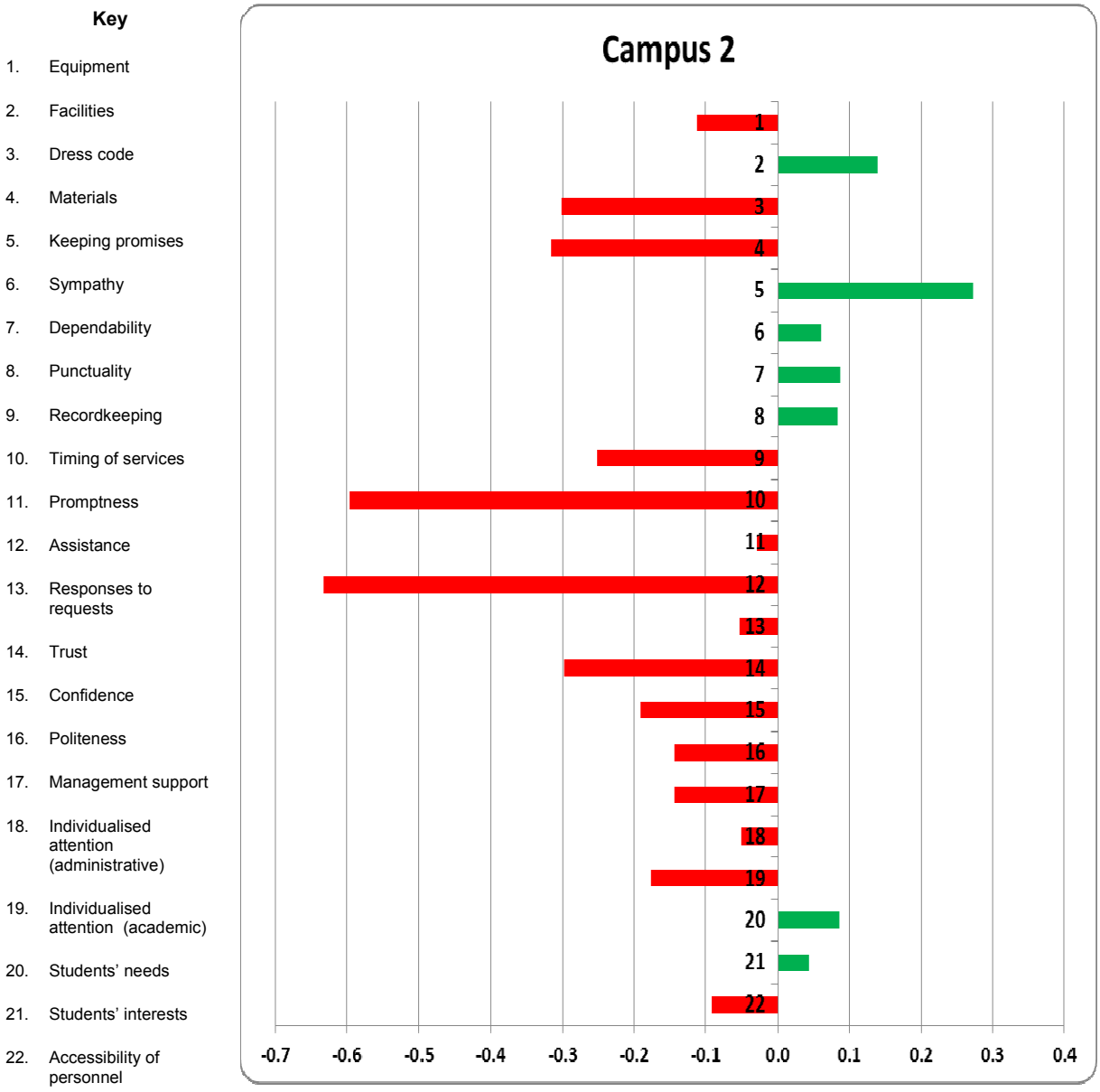

Figure 6.15: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 2

The data in figure 6.15, supported by the information contained in Appendix O, indicate that, on average, respondent perceptions of Campus 2 exceed their

expectations most regarding their trust that the personnel will deliver what they promise on time, followed by the visual appeal of physical facilities on the campus. The respondents' perceptions exceed their expectations to a lesser extent regarding the personnel being aware of students' needs, dependability to render services on time and to do it right the first time, the personnel being sympathetic and reassuring when students have problems and the personnel having the students' best interests at heart. The performance of Campus 2 is perceived to be the worst regarding the lecturers' willingness to assist students, followed by informing students when services will be rendered. It would also seem that the perceived image of Campus 2 regarding its materials and the lecturers' dress code is not what one would expect of the institution. Personnel at the campus are also not as trustworthy as expected.

6.4.3 Gap analysis: Campus 3

Figures 6.16 to 6.21 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for Campus 3. The gap analysis data for Campus 3 for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix P.

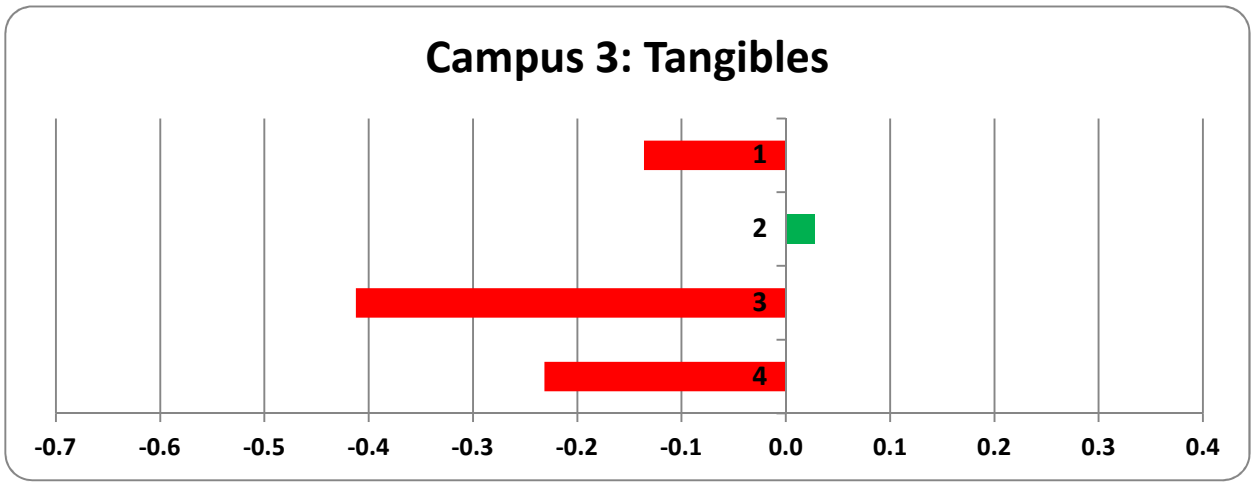

Figure 6.16: Gap analysis of tangibles across Campus 3

Figure 6.16 indicates that the positive image projected by Campus 3 with its attractiveness and the visual appeal of the physical facilities (for which the perception exceeds the expectation) is not supported by the quality of the materials,

the contemporaneousness of the equipment and the way the personnel dress (they are expected to dress professionally but the perception is that they do not).

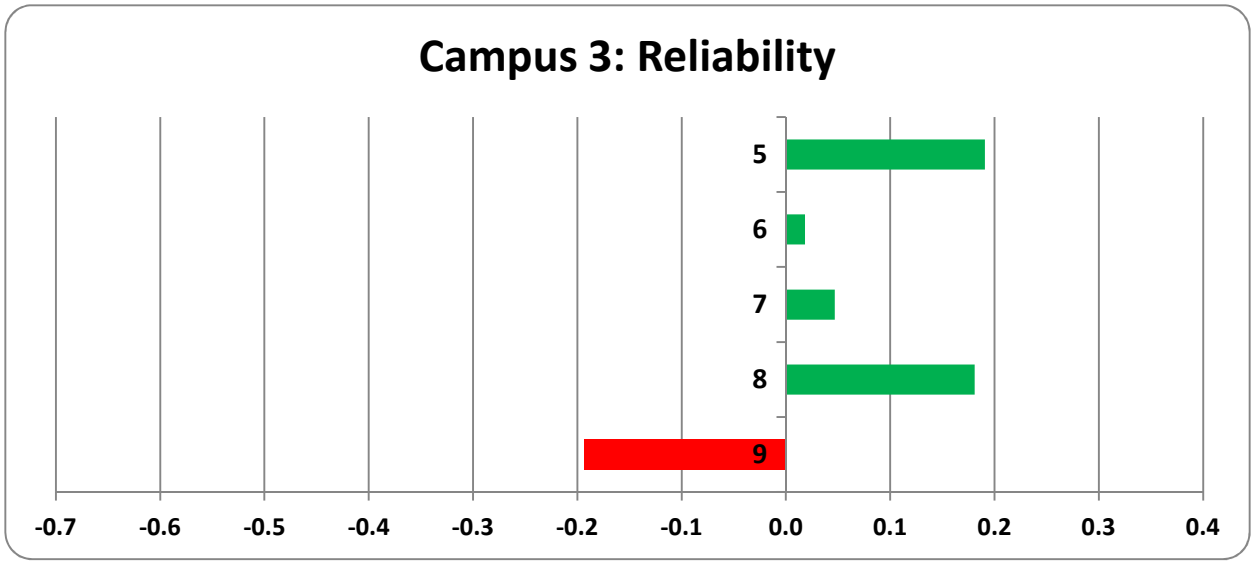

Figure 6.17: Gap analysis of reliability across Campus 3

Figure 6.17 indicates that the respondents' perception of Campus 3 exceeds their expectations with respect to all aspects of reliability except for the Campus's ability to keep accurate records.

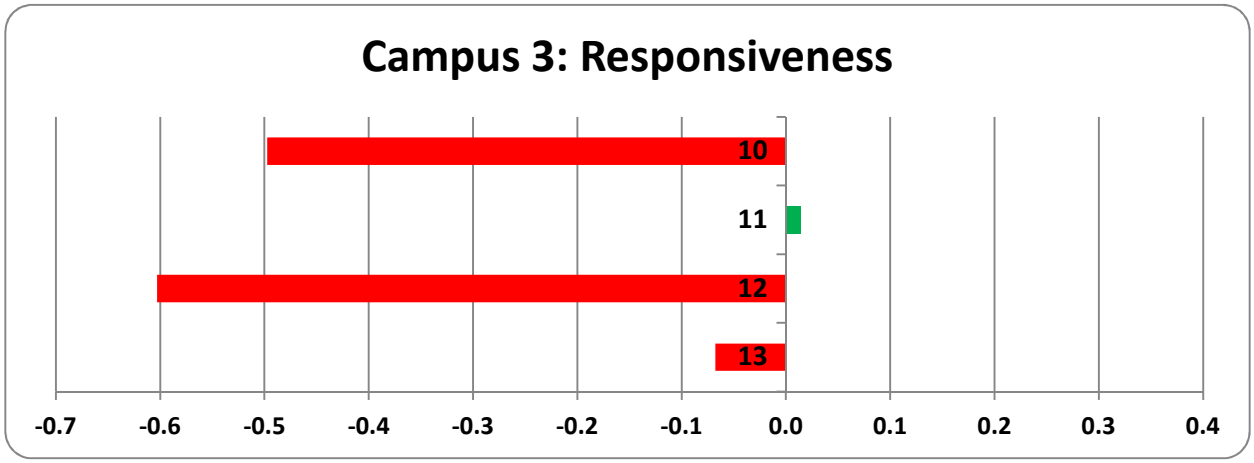

Figure 6.18: Gap analysis of responsiveness across Campus 3

According to figure 6.18, it would seem that the lecturers at Campus 3 are not perceived to be willing to assist students as expected, that students are not informed when services will be rendered and that personnel are perceived to be too busy to respond promptly to the students' requests.

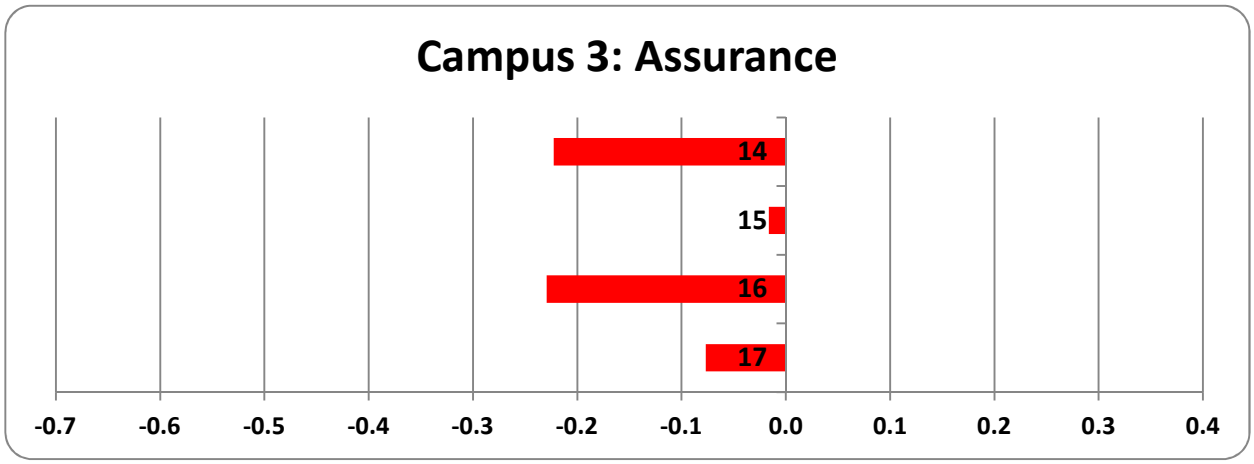

Figure 6.19: Gap analysis of assurance across Campus 3

The data in figure 6.19 indicate that at Campus 3, the students' expectations of all aspects of assurance are higher than their perceptions of those aspects, with politeness and trusting the personnel at the bottom of the list.

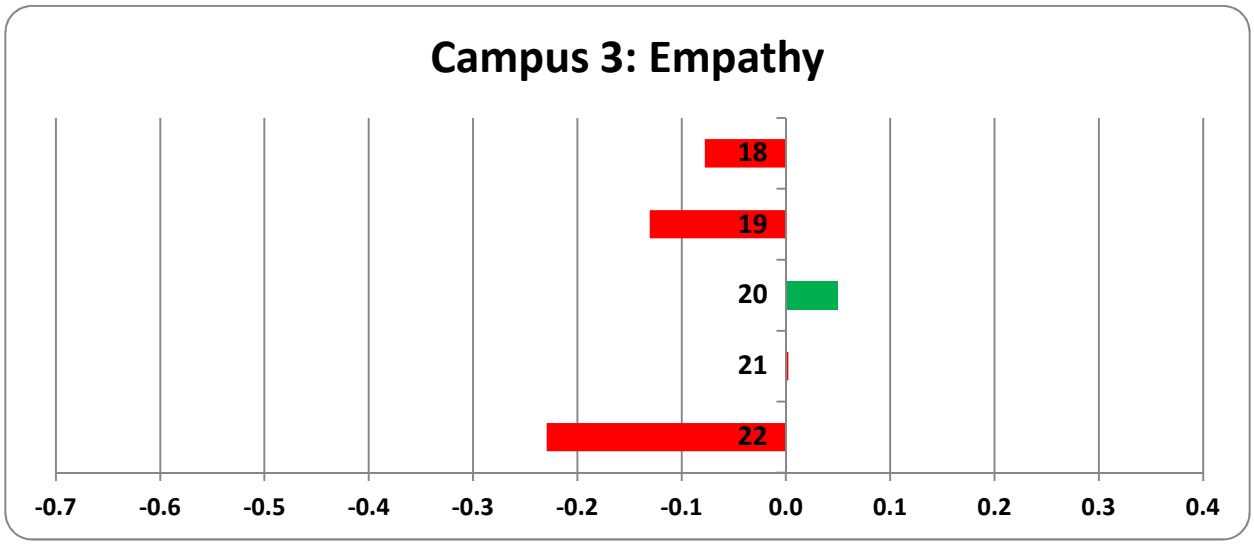

Figure 6.20: Gap analysis of empathy across Campus 3

Figure 6.20 indicates that Campus 3 is perceived to recognise the needs of the students and indeed have their best interests at heart. However, the personnel are perceived not to project this goodwill by performing below the expected level of service to students owing to the perceived inaccessibility of the personnel, lack of individual attention to students and perceived unwillingness to show empathy towards individual student's needs.

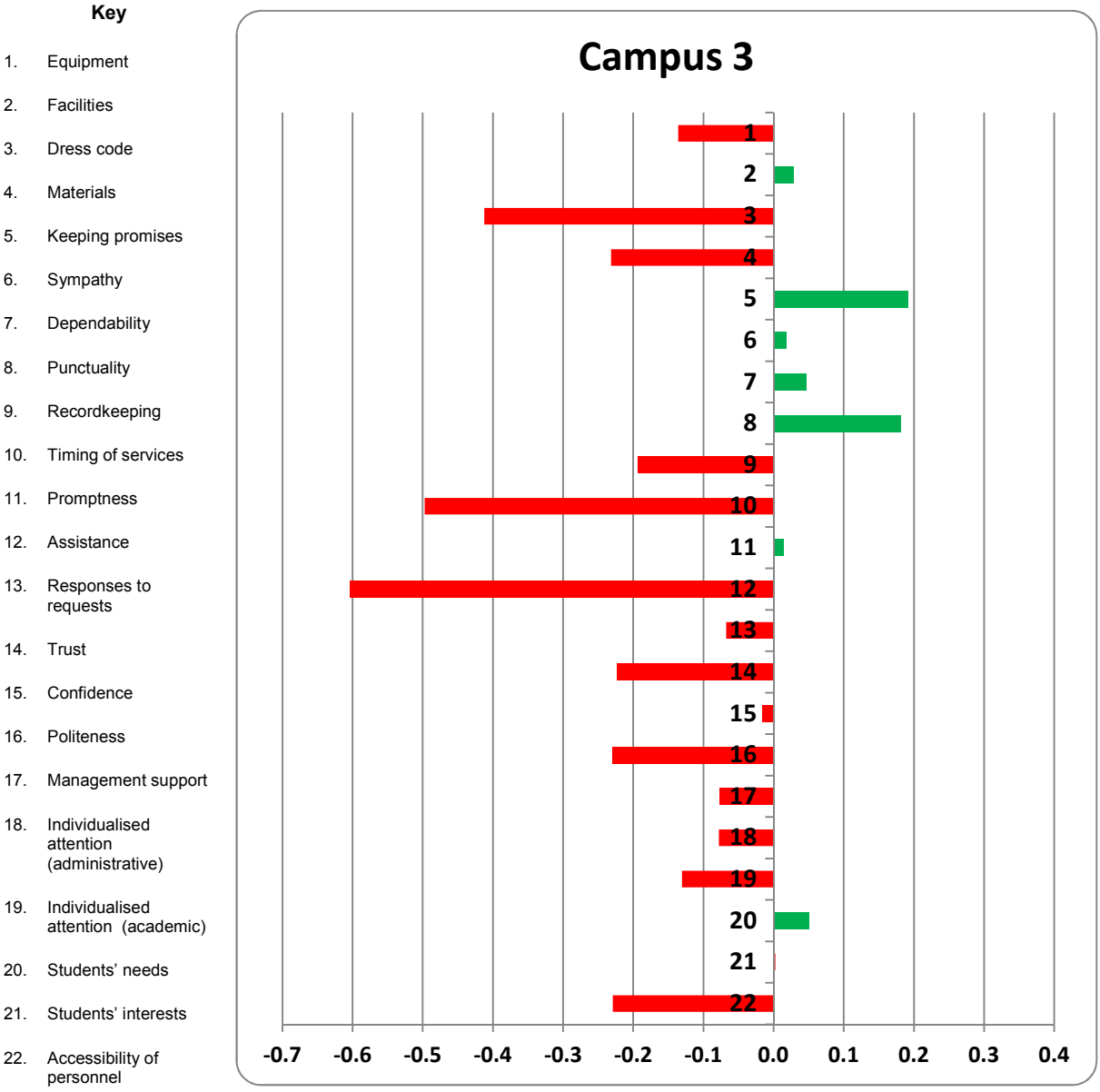

Figure 6.21: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 3

The data in figure 6.21, supported by the information contained in Appendix P, indicate, on average, that the respondents' perceptions of Campus 3 exceed their expectations by the furthest regarding their trust that "The College" will deliver what it promises timeously, and slightly exceed their expectations regarding recognition of student's needs, the visual appeal of the physical facilities and the promptness of service delivery from the campus's personnel. On average, the respondents' expectations exceed their perceptions by the furthest regarding the lecturers' willingness to assist students, followed by the students being told when services will be rendered and the dress code for personnel.

6.4.4 Gap analysis: Campus 4

Figures 6.22 to 6.27 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for Campus 4. The gap analysis data for Campus 4 for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix Q.

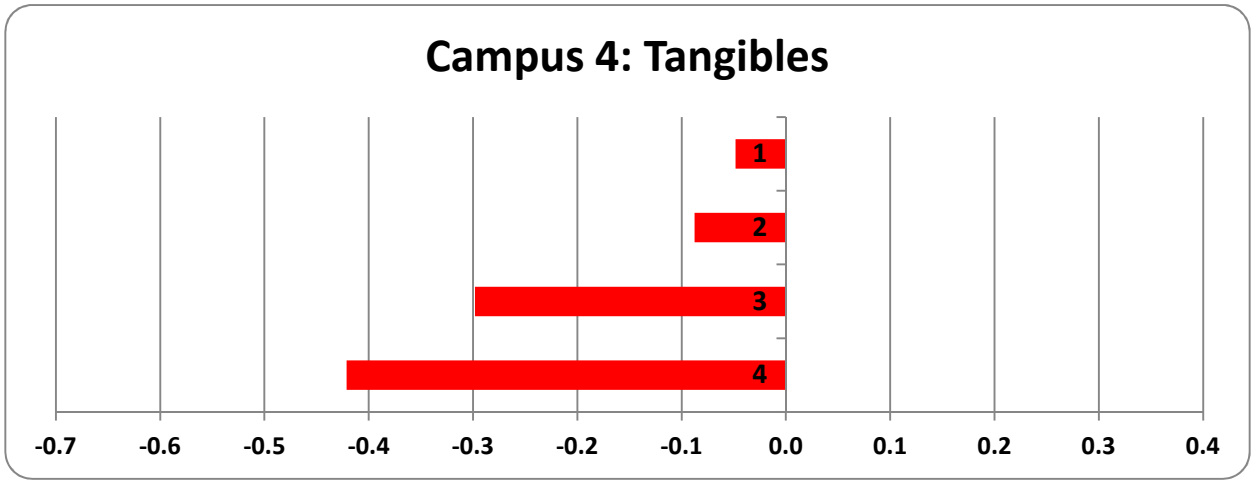

Figure 6.22: Gap analysis of tangibles across Campus 4

Figure 6.22 indicates that Campus 4 is perceived to perform the worst when it comes to the quality of its materials, followed by the lack of a professional dress code for the personnel on campus.

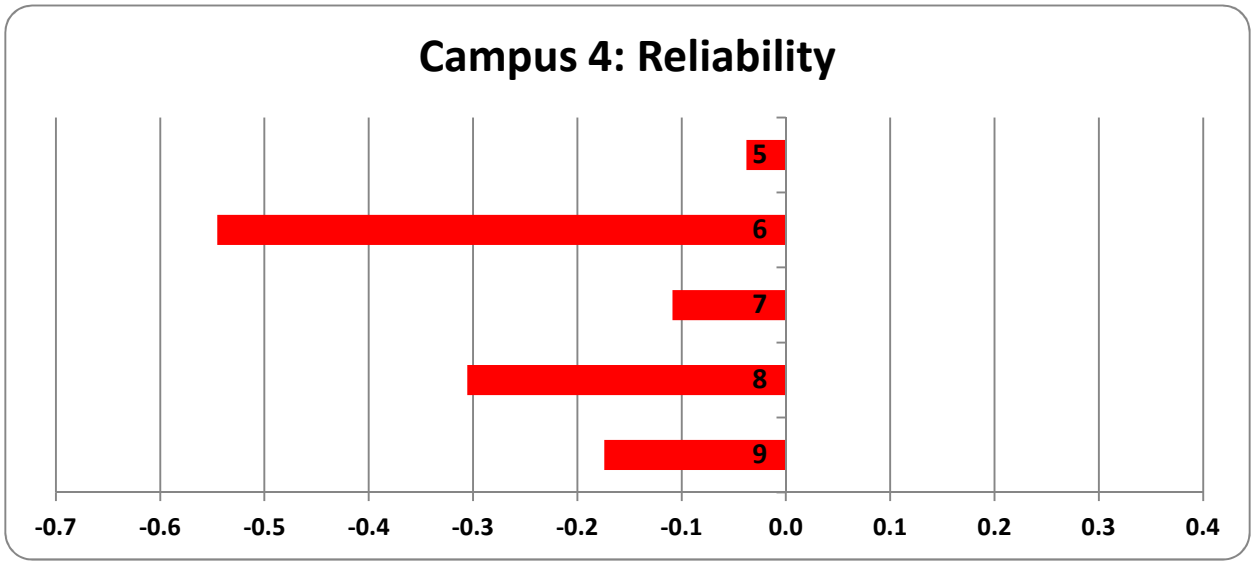

Figure 6.23: Gap analysis of reliability across Campus 4

According to the data in figure 6.23 the respondents' expectations of Campus 4 appear to exceed their perceptions in all aspects of reliability. The campus is perceived to perform the worst regarding the extent to which the personnel act sympathetically and reassuringly towards students when they have problems, followed by rendering the promised services timeously.

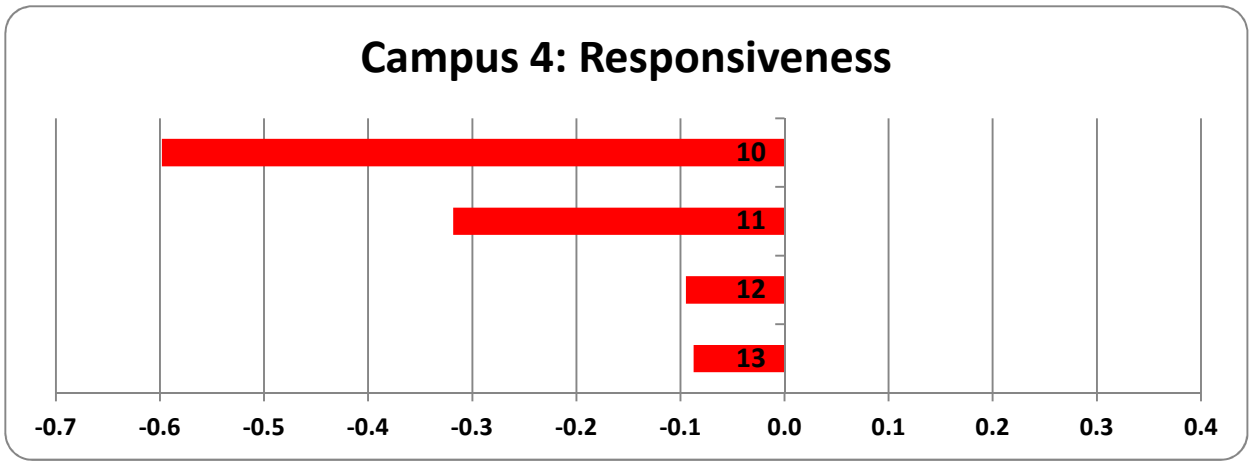

Figure 6.24: Gap analysis of responsiveness across Campus 4

Figure 6.24 indicates that Campus 4 is perceived to perform the worst when it comes to informing students when services will be rendered, followed by the promptness with which services are provided.

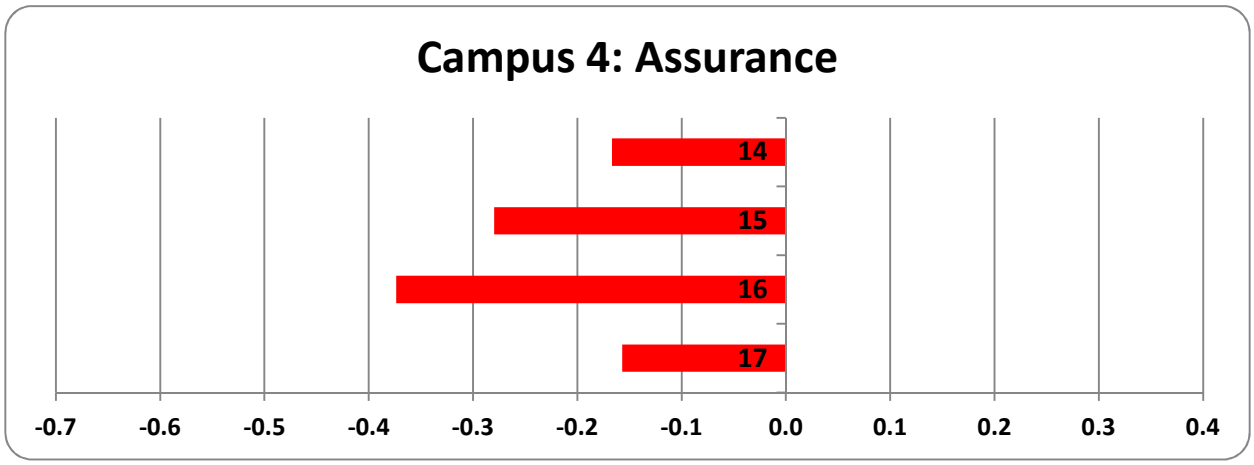

Figure 6.25: Gap analysis of assurance across Campus 4

From figure 6.25 it seems that Campus 4 does not perform well regarding all aspects of assurance, with the perceived politeness of personnel being the worst.

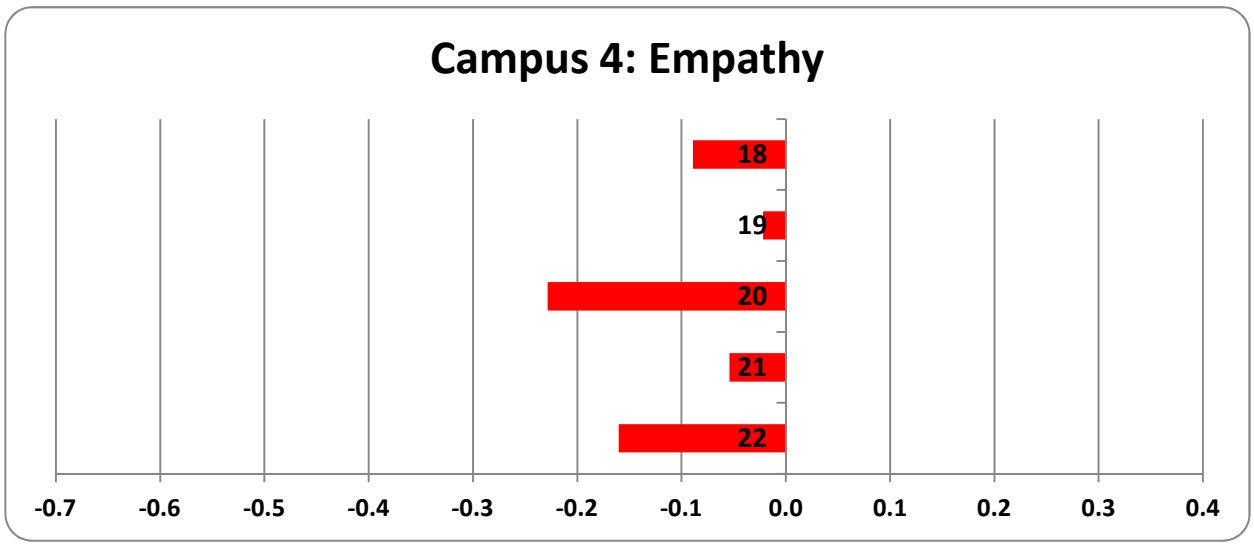

Figure 6.26: Gap analysis of empathy across Campus 4

According the data in figure 6.26, Campus 4 is perceived to perform the worst when it comes in recognition of students' needs, followed by the perceived inaccessibility of personnel to students.

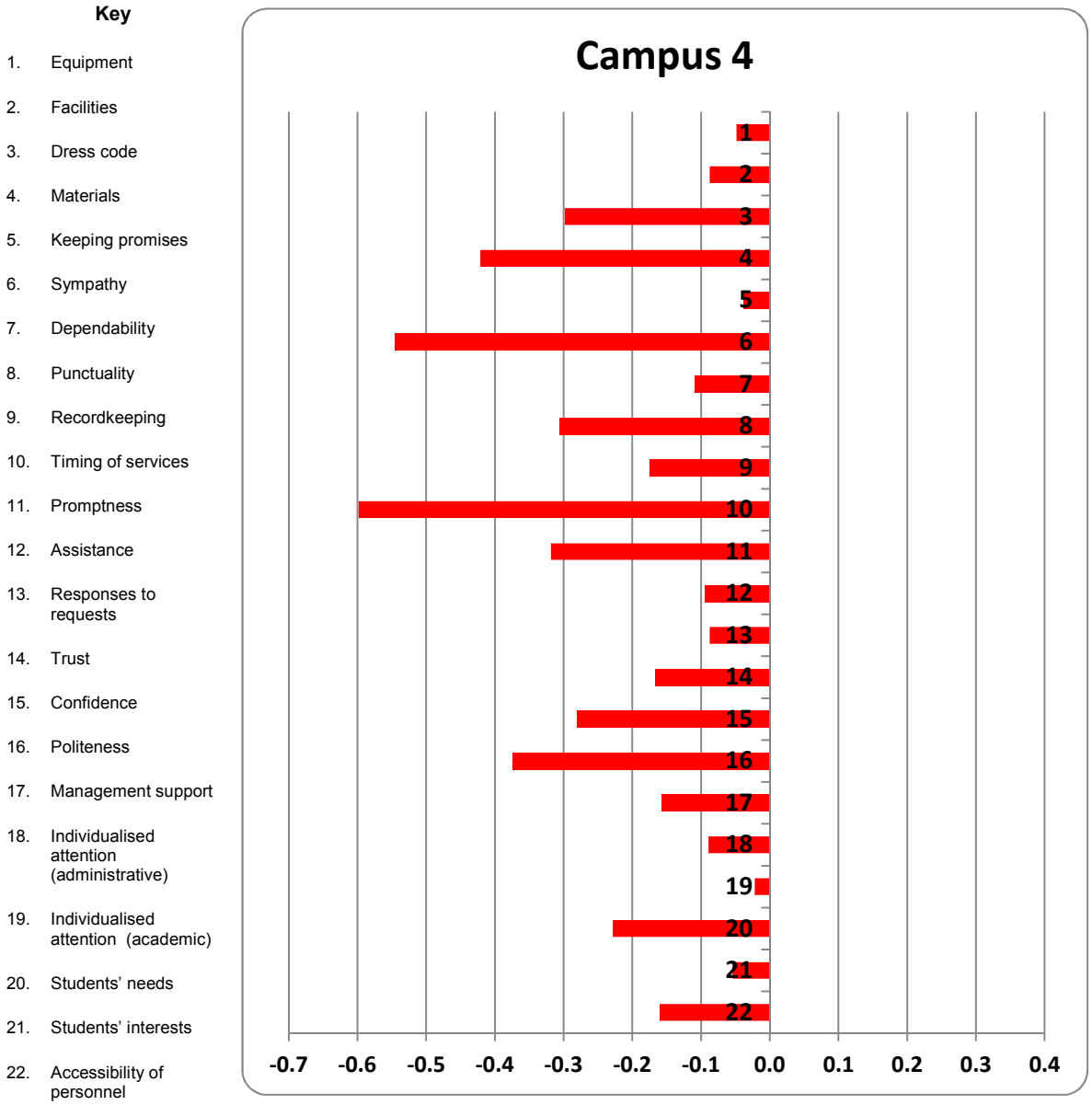

Figure 6.27: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 4

According to data in figure 6.27, supported by the information contained in Appendix Q, it is evident that, on average, the respondents' expectations of Campus 4 exceed their perceptions of all the aspects of all the dimensions of service quality. The campus is perceived to perform the worst when it comes to informing students when services will be rendered, followed by personnel being perceived as not being sympathetic and reassuring when students have problems, the quality of materials that are perceived not to suit the image of "The College", the perceived impoliteness

of the personnel and the perception that the promptness of service delivery is lacking.

6.4.5 Gap analysis: Campus 5

Figures 6.28 to 6.33 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for Campus 5. The gap analysis data for Campus 5 for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix R.

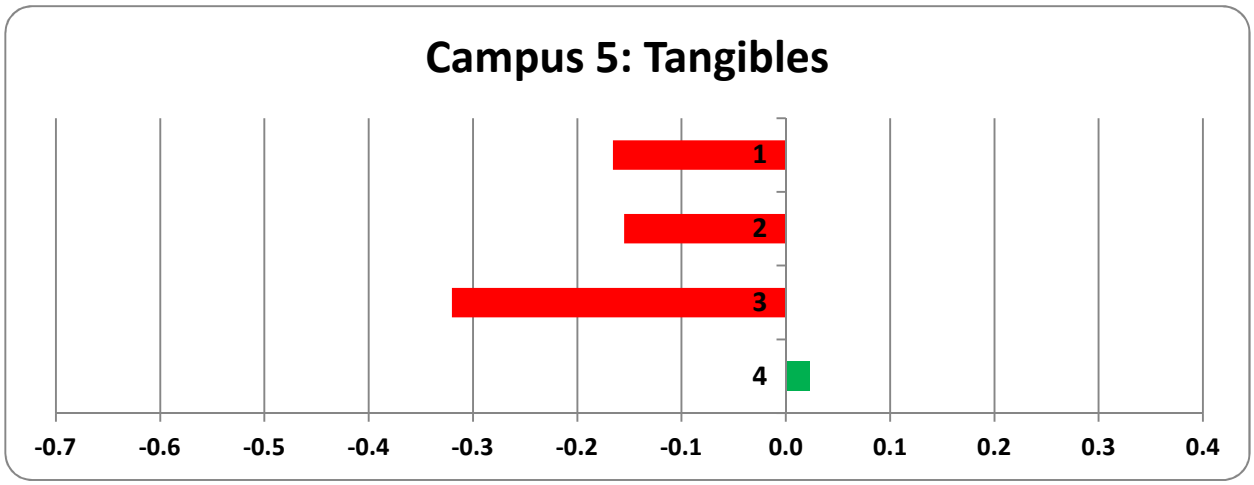

Figure 6.28: Gap analysis of tangibles across Campus 5

According to figure 6.28, the only positive perception of the tangibles at Campus 5 seems to be that the materials that suit the image of “The College”. Campus 5 performs worst in respect of the perceived dress code for personnel at the campus.

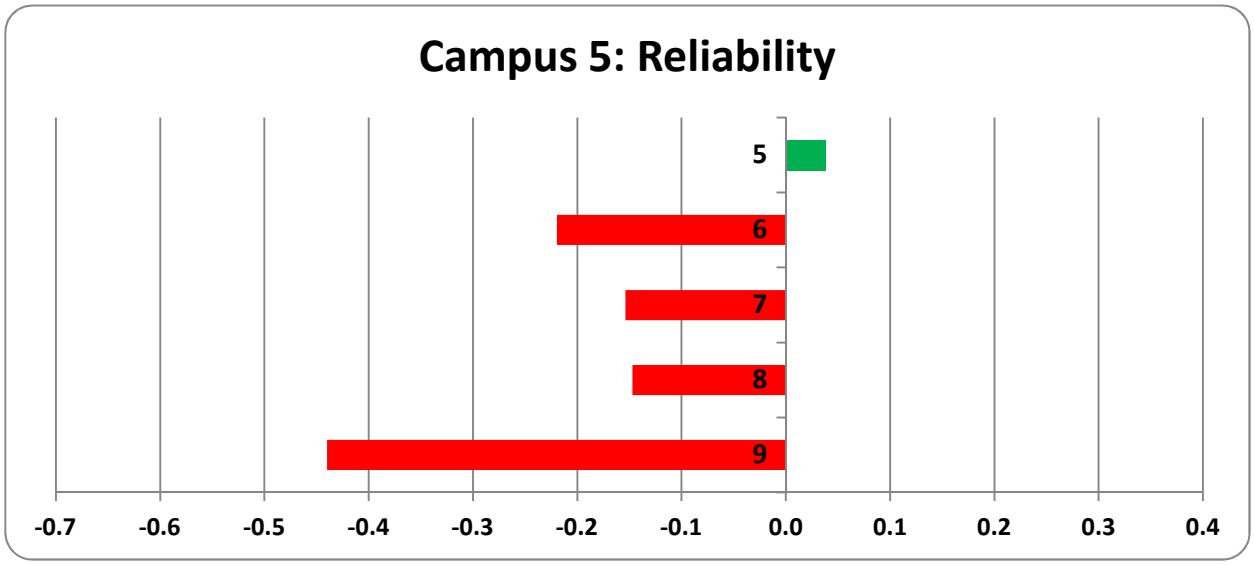

Figure 6.29: Gap analysis of reliability across Campus 5

Figure 6.29 indicates that the respondents' expectations of Campus 5 exceed their perceptions when it comes to all aspects of reliability, except with keeping promises on time. The campus is perceived to perform the worst in accurate recordkeeping.

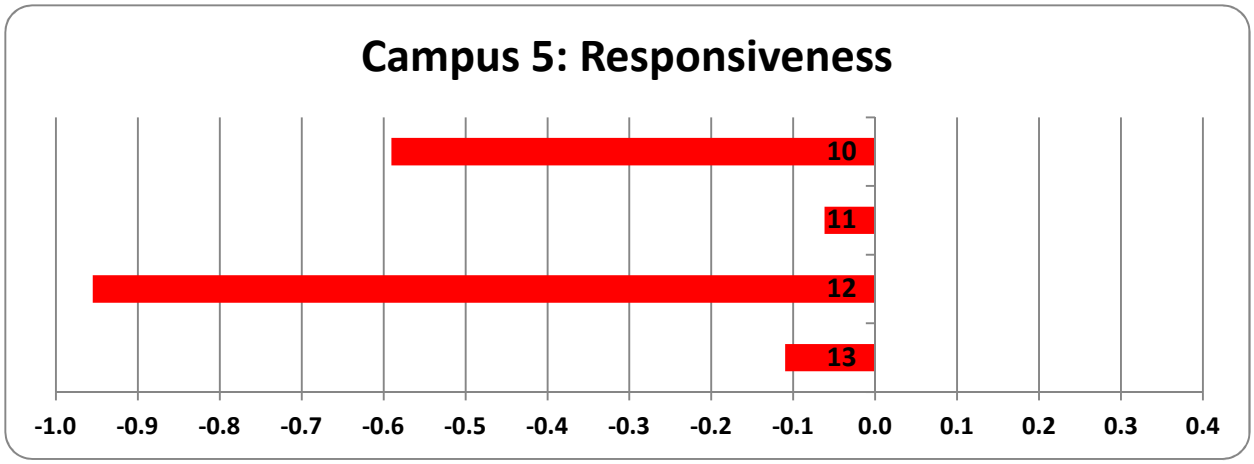

Figure 6.30: Gap analysis of responsiveness across Campus 5

Figure 6.30 indicates that Campus 5 is not perceived to perform according to expectations regarding any of the aspects of responsiveness. The campus is perceived to perform the worst when it comes to the willingness of lecturers to assist students, followed by informing students when services will be rendered.

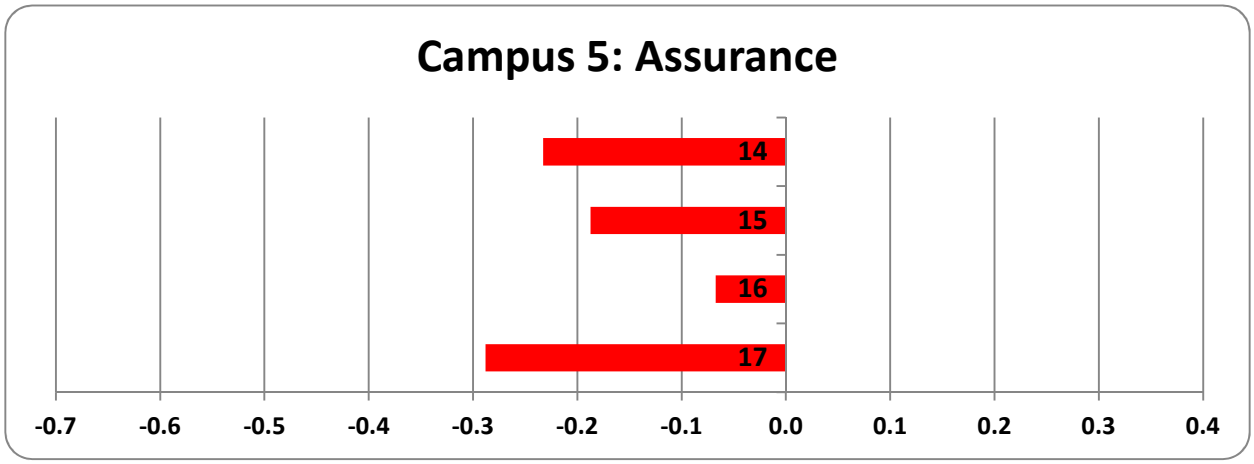

Figure 6.31: Gap analysis of assurance across Campus 5

Figure 6.31 indicates that at Campus 5 the respondents' expectations of all aspects of assurance are higher than their perceptions of those aspects, with support for personnel by management and trusting personnel at the bottom of the list.

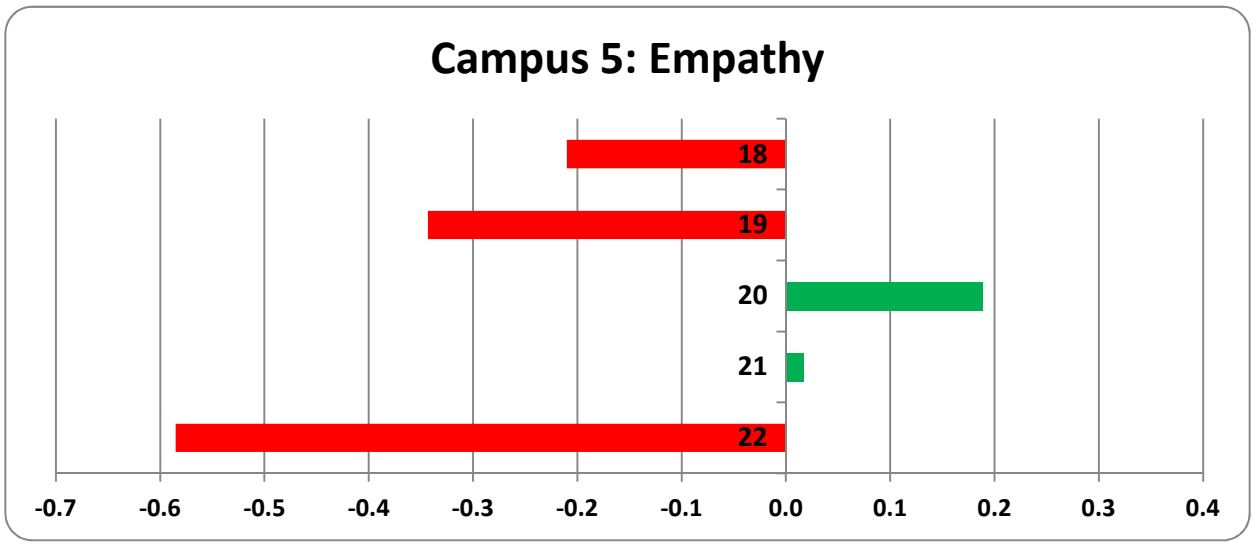

Figure 6.32: Gap analysis of empathy across Campus 5

The data in figure 6.32 indicate that even though Campus 5 is perceived to recognise the needs of its students and indeed have their best interests at heart, the personnel are perceived not to project this goodwill by performing below the expected level of service to students owing to the perceived inaccessibility of the

personnel, lack of individual attention to students and perceived unwillingness to show empathy with the needs of individual students.

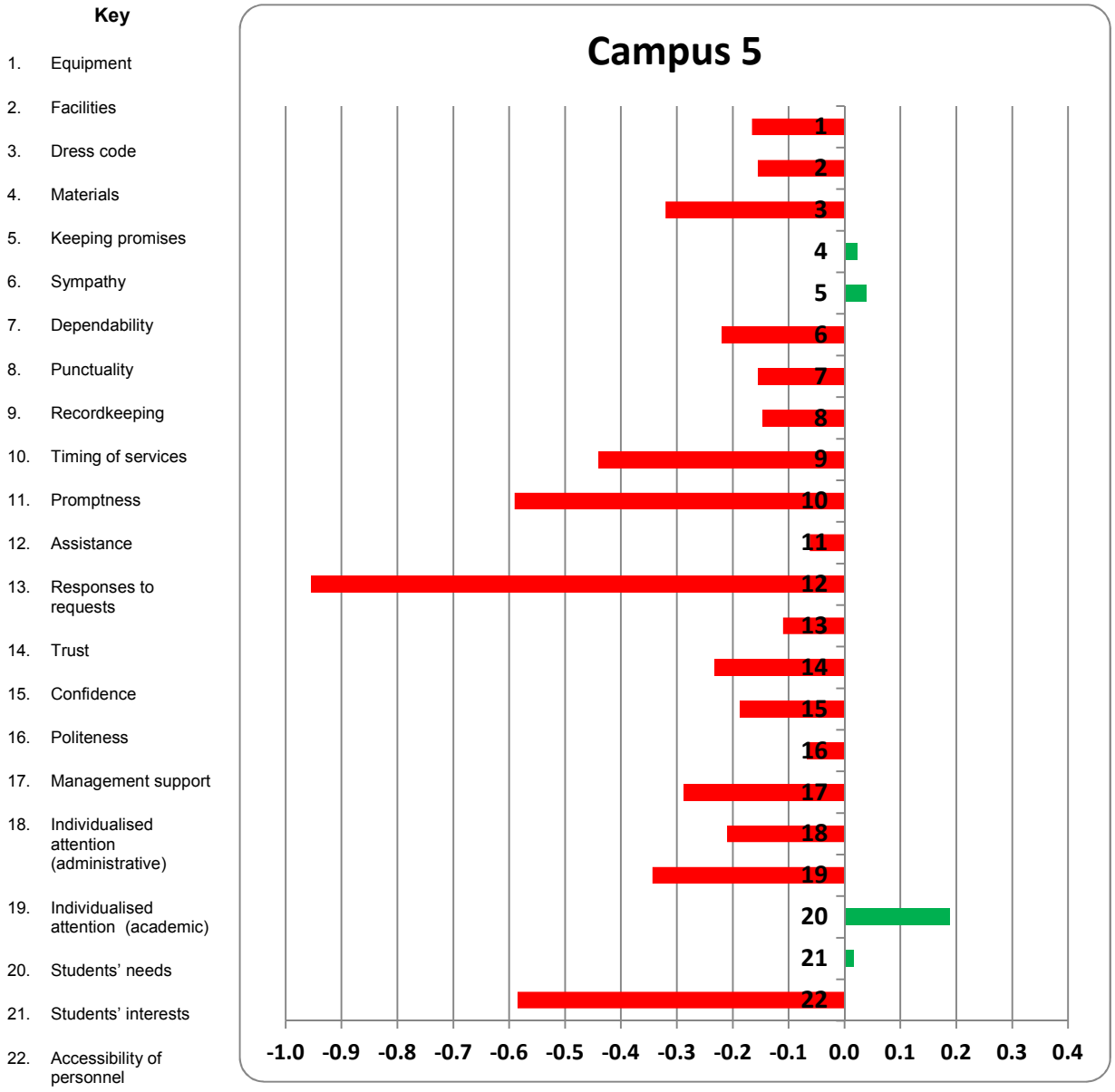

Figure 6.33: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 5

According to the data in figure 6.33, supported by the information in Appendix R, it is evident that, on average, respondents' expectations of Campus 5 exceed their perceptions when it comes to most of the aspects of the dimensions of service quality. The campus is perceived to perform the worst in respect of the lecturers' willingness to assist students, followed by informing students when services will be rendered, the accessibility of personnel to students, lecturers providing individual

attention to students, the dress code for personnel at the campus and the adequateness of the support of management for personnel. The campus is perceived to recognise the needs of students and have their best interests at heart. The quality of the material is perceived to suit the image of “The College” and it is perceived to render the promised services timeously.

6.4.6 Gap analysis: all campuses

Figures 6.34 to 6.39 below represent the SERVQUAL gap analysis for the five dimensions of service quality for all five campuses. The gap analysis data of the campuses for all five dimensions are provided in Appendix M.

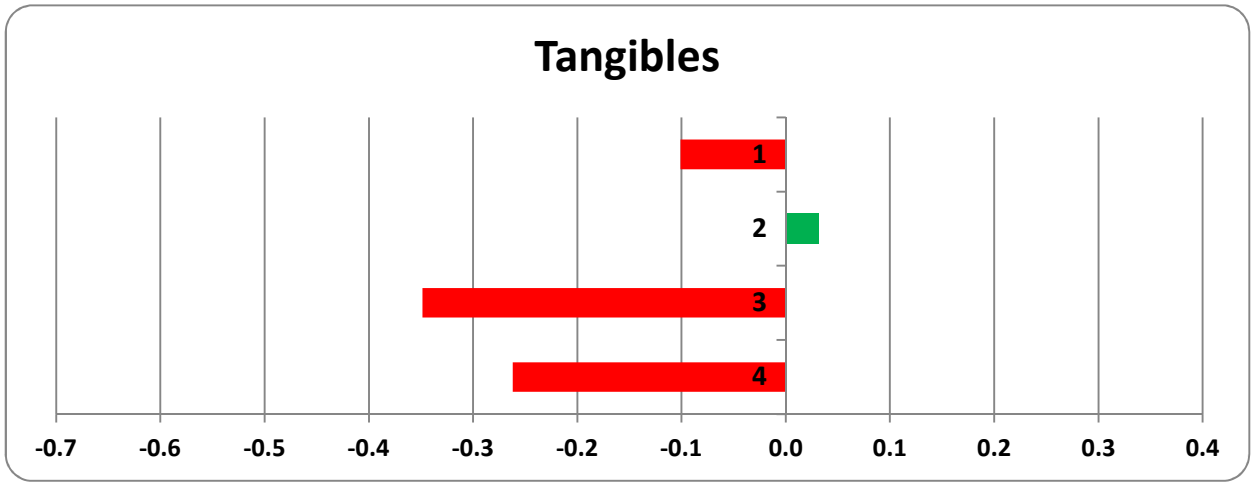

Figure 6.34: Gap analysis of tangibles across all campuses

The data in figure 6.34 indicate the positive image projected by “The College” with the attractiveness and visual appeal of the physical facilities (for which the perception exceeds the expectation) is not supported by the way the personnel dress (they are expected to dress professionally, but they are perceived not to), the quality of the materials (expected to suit the image of “The College”, but it is perceived not to) and the contemporaneousness of the equipment (expected to be up to date, but perceived not to be).

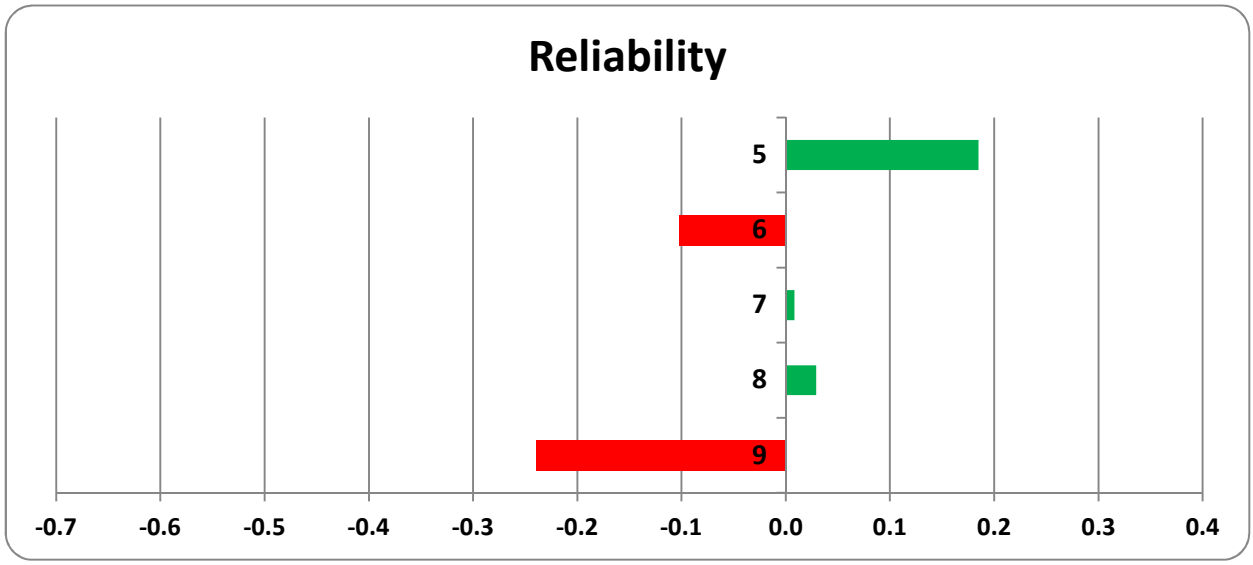

Figure 6.35: Gap analysis of reliability across all campuses

Figure 6.35 indicates that "The College" can be trusted to do what it has promised correctly and timeously, but it does have problems with recordkeeping and the personnel are not as sympathetic and reassuring as they are expected to be.

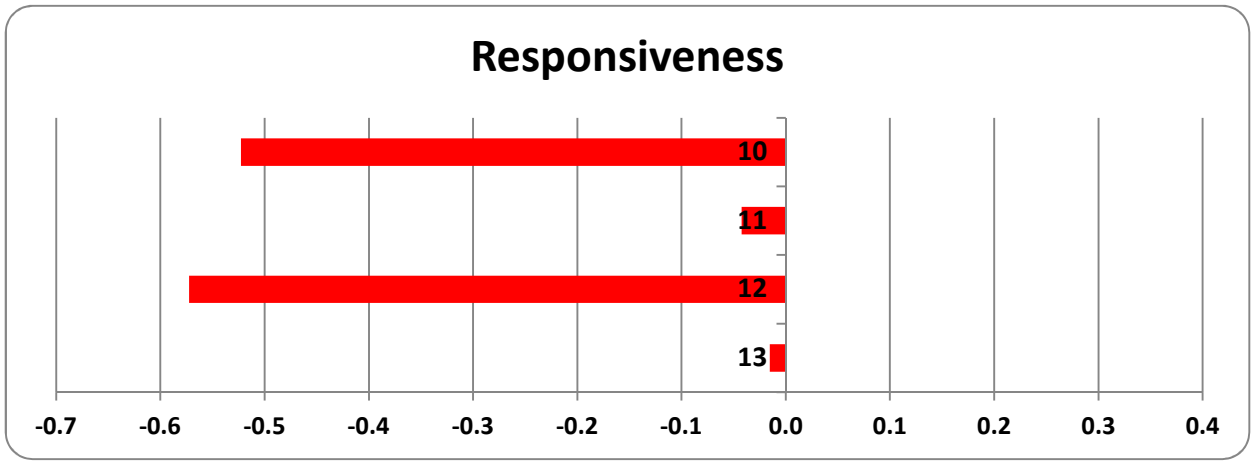

Figure 6.36: Gap analysis of responsiveness across all campuses

The data in figure 6.36 indicate that the lecturers at "The College" are not perceived to be willing to assist students as expected and that students are also not informed when services will be provided. Regarding the promptness of service delivery and responses to students' requests by "The College's" personnel, the students' perception is only slightly lower than their expectation.

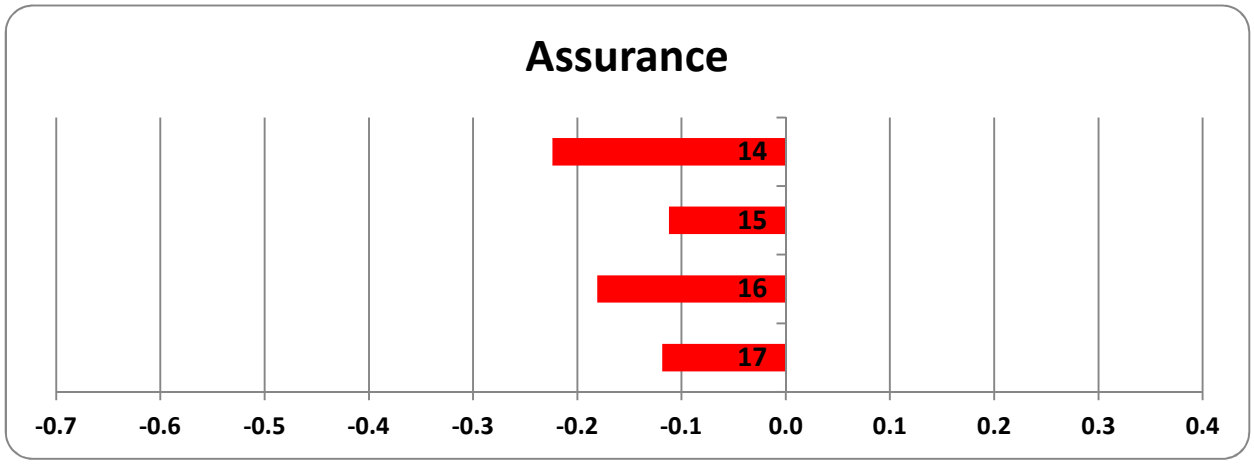

Figure 6.37: Gap analysis of assurance across all campuses

Figure 6.37 indicates that the personnel of "The College" cannot be fully trusted, are not that polite and do not inspire as much confidence as expected. This could be explained by the perception that they do not receive as much support from management to improve their performance and service delivery quality as one would expect.

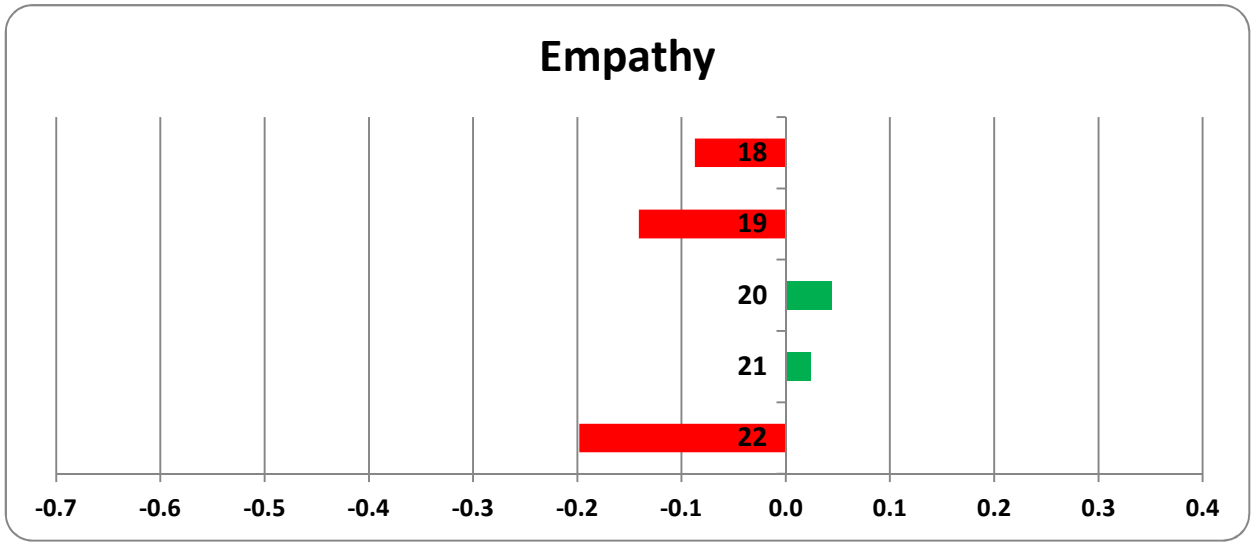

Figure 6.38: Gap analysis of empathy across all campuses

The data in figure 6.38 indicate that even though "The College" is perceived to recognise the needs of its students and indeed have their best interests at heart, the personnel are perceived not to project this goodwill by performing below the expected level of service for students, owing to the perceived inaccessibility of

personnel, lack of individual attention to students and unwillingness to show empathy towards the needs of individual student.

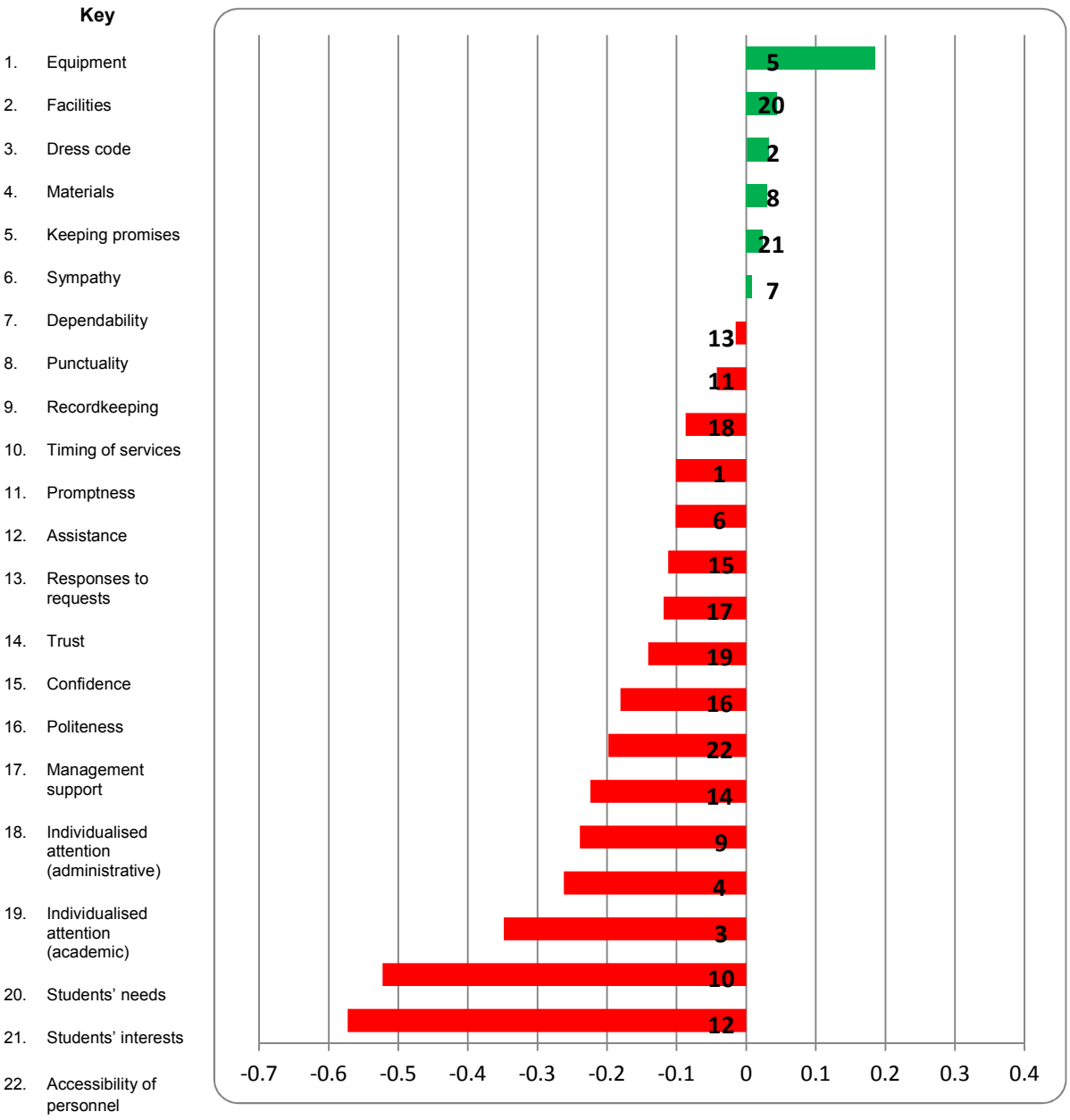

Figure 6.39: Gap analysis of all dimensions across all campuses

Figure 6.39 depicts the differences between expectations and perceptions for all dimensions and for all the campuses of "The College" as a single group. It would appear that, on average and in general, "The College" fares the best in reliability to

deliver what it promises timeously and worst in the personnel's responsiveness in respect of their willingness to assist and inform students when services will be rendered. "The College" also seems to fare poorly when it comes to the projected image of "The College" with respect to its materials and the dress code of the personnel.

The SERVQUAL gap analysis summary is provided in table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: SERVQUAL gap analysis summary

	Campus 1			**Campus 2**			**Campus 3**			**Campus 4**			**Campus 5**		
	Gap	P	E	Gap	P	E	Gap	P	E	Gap	P	E	Gap	P	E
Service quality dimensions															
Tangibles	**-0.15**	3.61	3.76	**-0.15**	3.62	3.77	**-0.19**	3.87	4.06	**-0.22**	3.91	4.13	**-0.15**	3.66	3.81
Reliability	**0.02**	3.59	3.57	**0.05**	3.54	3.49	**0.05**	3.54	3.49	**-0.23**	3.90	4.14	**-0.18**	3.46	3.64
Responsiveness	**-0.05**	3.85	3.90	**-0.33**	3.87	4.19	**-0.29**	3.78	4.07	**-0.27**	3.99	4.27	**-0.43**	3.57	4.00
Assurance	**0.00**	3.92	3.92	**-0.19**	3.69	3.88	**-0.13**	3.73	3.86	**-0.25**	3.91	4.16	**-0.19**	3.44	3.63
Empathy	**0.02**	3.97	3.95	**-0.04**	3.84	3.88	**-0.08**	3.72	3.80	**-0.11**	4.08	4.19	**-0.19**	3.43	3.62
SQI	**-0.03**			**-0.12**			**-0.11**			**-0.21**			**-0.23**		

As indicated in table 6.3, Campus 1 is perceived to render the best overall quality of service with a service quality gap of only -0.03. By contrast, Campus 5 seems to provide the worst service quality experience to its students with a service quality gap of -0.23. In terms of overall individual service quality dimensions, "tangibles" and "responsiveness" appear to represent the largest quality gaps.

6.5 SERVQUAL: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION

This section will focus on the mean and standard deviation of the SERVQUAL survey. Appendix S indicates the mean and standard deviation combined for all campuses as well as per individual campus.

The mean is the sum of a set of values divided by the number of the values and is usually accompanied by the standard deviation, which is the most common measure of variability. The standard deviation is the square root of the average amount that each of the individual values varies from the mean set of values (Salkind, 2009).

The mean is a measure of location in descriptive statistics. The standard deviation is a measure of how well (accurately) the mean describes the data and to what extent the actual data vary from the mean value. Small standard deviations (relative to the mean itself) indicate that the data values tend to be close to the mean. A large standard deviation (relative to the mean itself) indicates that the data values lie far from the mean, that is, the mean is not an accurate representation of the data. A standard deviation of zero would mean that all the scores are the same.

According to Field (2005) and Utts and Heckard (2007), the ***empirical rule*** states that for any bell-shaped (normal) data distribution, approximately

- 68% of the values fall within one standard deviation from the mean in either direction
- 95% of the values fall within two standard deviations from the mean in either direction
- 99.7% of the values fall within three standard deviations from the mean in either direction

Table 6.4 below represents the mean and standard deviation per dimension overall as well as per individual campus. The data are supported by the data in Appendix S which indicate that all the values for the items measured for both expectations and perceptions have roughly the same variation, with all the standard deviations being around 2.

Table 6.4: Mean and standard deviation per dimension – all campuses

Overall	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	930	3.7520	1.6137	983	3.9225	1.4851
Reliability	894	3.5900	1.7041	982	3.6199	1.6003
Responsiveness	889	3.8104	1.6500	980	4.1024	1.5161
Assurance	889	3.7243	1.7234	976	3.8838	1.6220
Empathy	895	3.7959	1.6866	979	3.8681	1.5578

Campus 1	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	96	3.5929	1.5860	104	3.7556	1.5026
Reliability	91	3.5850	1.7148	104	3.5702	1.6457
Responsiveness	91	3.8480	1.6786	104	3.8926	1.6208
Assurance	91	3.9212	1.7433	104	3.9255	1.5843
Empathy	92	3.9696	1.7600	104	3.9399	1.6350

Campus 2	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	260	3.6147	1.6485	276	3.7645	1.5121
Reliability	250	3.5190	1.7583	276	3.5053	1.5788
Responsiveness	249	3.8454	1.7152	276	4.1754	1.5384
Assurance	249	3.6831	1.7850	274	3.8796	1.6657
Empathy	252	3.8345	1.7510	276	3.8696	1.5945

Campus 3	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	324	3.8598	1.6350	335	4.0512	1.4793
Reliability	317	3.5426	1.6988	334	3.4864	1.5933
Responsiveness	316	3.7859	1.5968	332	4.0665	1.4292
Assurance	316	3.7173	1.7148	332	3.8461	1.6191
Empathy	317	3.7113	1.6447	331	3.7970	1.4902

Campus 4	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	142	3.9396	1.5185	148	4.1256	1.4791
Reliability	135	3.9269	1.6947	148	4.1536	1.6402
Responsiveness	134	3.9621	1.7145	148	4.2725	1.5728
Assurance	134	3.8787	1.6985	146	4.1553	1.6373
Empathy	134	4.0663	1.7259	148	4.1765	1.6326

Campus 5	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
Tangibles	108	3.6535	1.5906	120	3.8208	1.3884
Reliability	101	3.4690	1.5599	120	3.6399	1.4640
Responsiveness	99	3.5606	1.5337	120	4.0056	1.5264
Assurance	99	3.4604	1.5965	120	3.6313	1.5160
Empathy	100	3.4447	1.4675	120	3.6183	1.4506

For the total group and for each campus individually, the calculated dimension scores have more or less the same variance, with standard deviations around 1.7.

6.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

As indicated in chapter 5, section 5.4, the Pearson product moment correlation (represented by the letter *r*) was used to measure the relationship between leadership practices and service quality for "The College's" five campuses. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was also used to calculate the proportion of variance. A correlation coefficient helps to determine the strength of the linear relationship between two ranked or quantifiable variables. This coefficient (*r*) can take any value between -1 and +1. Table 5.7 in chapter 5 indicates the strength of the positive or negative correlations.

The correlation between leadership and service quality is calculated by using the SERVQUAL scores (mean SQI score) and LPI scores (mean observer scores). For the purpose of this study, only the LPI observer scores were used. As stated in chapter 1, section 1.6.1, leaders have multiple constituents, including managers, co-workers and direct reports. By receiving feedback from all perspectives leadership can be measured in terms of the five practices of exemplary leadership.

Table 6.5 below represents the calculation of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient.

Table 6.5: Correlation coefficient between the LPI (leadership practices) and SERVQUAL (service quality)

		Overall mean of LPI - observed	Overall SERVQUAL gap
Overall mean of LPI - observed	Pearson correlation	1	
	Sig. (1-tailed)		
	N	5	
Overall SERVQUAL gap	Pearson correlation	.915*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.029	
	N	5	5

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient: $r = 0.915$

The coefficient of determination: $R^2 = (0.915)^2 = 0.847$ (85%).

The correlation coefficient (r) indicates a strong positive linear relationship between leadership practices and service quality. The coefficient of determination (R^2) is calculated as 85%. This indicates that leadership practices explain 85% of the variation in service quality. The level of service quality based on leadership practices can be viewed with a high degree of confidence, since only 15% of the variation in service quality is unexplained by leadership practices.

6.7 LPI DATA SUMMARY

Table 6.6 below provides the LPI data summary of the leadership survey conducted on the five delivery sites of "The College". The data are supported by the information in Appendices E to I, which indicate the "LPI observer" scores of each principal as part of the so-called "five practices data summary". The "LPI observer" scores are utilised to calculate the correlation between leadership practices and service quality. It was indicated in chapter 5, section 5.3.1.2, that in order to minimise bias, the responses from the "LPI observer" were used for analyses instead of responses from the "LPI self".

Table 6.6: LPI data summary

	Campus 1	Campus 2	Campus 3	Campus 4	Campus 5	Five practices mean scores
The five practices of exemplary leadership						
Model the way	47.10	47.20	43.20	39.40	36.60	**42.7**
Inspire a shared vision	51.50	46.60	39.50	41.40	36.00	**43**
Challenge the process	47.20	45.80	44.50	38.90	33.20	**41.92**
Enable others to act	46.00	46.60	48.90	35.20	31.50	**41.64**
Encourage the heart	47.40	50.00	45.50	37.50	29.90	**42.06**
LPI score	**47.84**	**47.24**	**44.32**	**38.48**	**33.44**	

Table 6.6 indicates the LPI mean scores for each campus as well as the mean scores for the five practices.

In terms of the LPI mean scores, Campus 1 had the highest score of 47.84, indicating that the leader (principal) of Campus 1 engaged in the five practices of exemplary leadership fairly often. By comparison, the lack of leadership on Campus 5 was prominent, with an LPI score of 33.44.

There is little variation in terms of the mean scores for the five practices. The leadership practice of “Enable others to act” had the lowest score, with a mean score of 41.64. This indicates that the leaders of the five campuses engaged the least in this practice. By contrast, the practice of “Inspire a shared vision” had the highest score of 43, indicating that on average, leaders engaged in this practice more frequently.

The LPI and SERVQUAL data summaries are depicted graphically in the next section.

6.8 LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND SERVICE QUALITY

The results of this study are depicted in figure 6.40 below. The SERVQUAL scores are plotted against the LPI scores. For all the campuses, the LPI score correlates with the SERVQUAL score. In other words, where the campus principal received a high LPI score, the campus also received a high SERVQUAL score. However, the converse was also true. Where the campus principal received a low LPI rating, the campus also received a low SERVQUAL score.

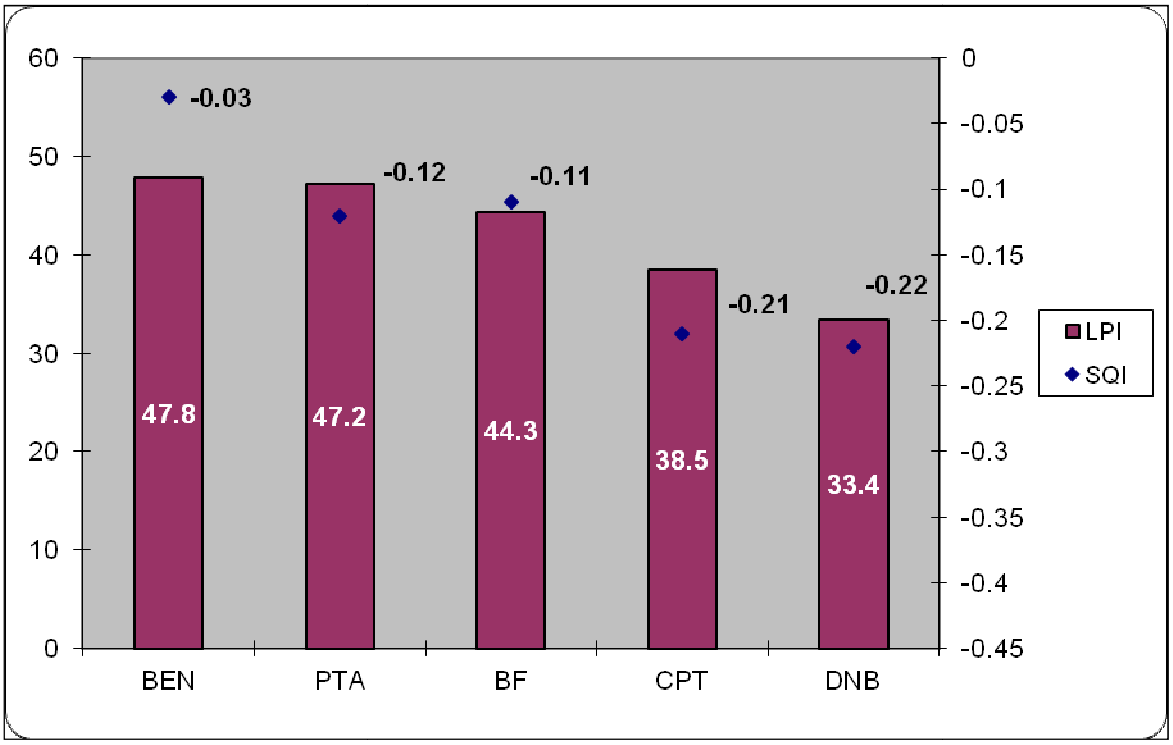

Figure 6.40: Leadership practices and service quality

Figure 6.40 indicates that Campus 1 had the highest LPI and SQI scores. This is supported by the correlation coefficient calculated in section 6.6, which indicated a strong positive linear relationship between leadership practices and service quality.

6.9 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the findings of the quantitative study conducted on the five campuses of "The College". The first two sections focused on the reliability analysis of the SERVQUAL and LPI instruments and descriptive statistics, including the student respondents' programme and year of study. Service quality expectations versus perceptions also formed part of this section. Section 6.4 provided the SERVQUAL gap analysis for each campus individually and for the "The College" as a whole.

The remainder of the chapter dealt with descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviation in an effort to obtain a picture of leadership practices and service quality overall (mean) and to provide a sense of variation (standard deviation) around the mean responses. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient and the coefficient of determination were utilised to determine the strength of the linear relationship between the constructs of leadership and service quality. The chapter concluded with a visual representation of the impact of leadership practices on service quality.

It is evident from the empirical findings in this chapter that there are conclusive differences in the levels of leadership and service quality provided on each of the five campuses. In order to improve service quality, campus principals should start by addressing the practice of "enabling others to act" by fostering collaboration and strengthening others. In addition, the service quality dimension of "responsiveness" represented the largest overall service quality gap and this needs to be addressed first in an effort to close the gap between students' perceptions and expectations of service quality.

Chapter 7 draws conclusions for this study and makes recommendations for possible future research.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

While an almost infinite amount of literature on leadership and service quality is available, no academic work was found that focused on the relationship between leadership and service quality in HE, and more specifically, the PHE sector. This study, comprising seven chapters, investigated the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa. As such, the study examined the impact of leadership (the independent variable) on service quality (the dependent variable).

Chapter 1 provided a brief overview of the background to the study, the problem statement and research statement, followed by the primary and secondary research objectives, research method and definitions of the terms used in the study.

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 formed part of the literature review for this study. Chapter 2 explored the PHE environment in South Africa. PHE practices in other countries were considered and compared with the practices in South Africa. The chapter also investigated the governance, challenges and profiles of PHE providers.

Chapter 3 focused on service quality. Definitions and previous research in terms service quality were investigated. The chapter provided an in-depth overview of the adapted SERVQUAL instrument that was used to conduct the study and selected alternative service quality measuring instruments. The importance of service quality and its five dimensions was discussed.

The focus of chapter 4 was to provide a review of the existing literature on leadership. The chapter reviewed numerous leadership definitions and theories. It then went on to give an in-depth overview of the LPI instrument that was used to conduct the study and selected alternative leadership assessment instruments. The significance of leadership and its impact on service quality were also discussed. In addition, the five practices of exemplary leadership were investigated.

In chapter 5 the research design and methodology employed in this study were explained. The discussion revolved around the research strategy that was adopted,

the data collection method, data analyses, research quality and delimitations and research ethics.

Chapter 6 presented the data and findings of the surveys conducted at the five delivery sites of “The College”. The data included descriptive statistics such as an analysis of service quality expectations and perceptions, the service quality gap analysis and the means and standard deviations. The chapter concluded with a correlation analysis of leadership practices and service quality.

This chapter summarises the findings, reliability and validity of the research, limitations and delimitations as well as conclusions and recommendations for possible further research. The summary of the findings includes a discussion of the purpose of the study, a description of the methodology used in the research, how the primary and secondary objectives were achieved and an explanation of the results of the data analyses. The third section confirms the reliability and validity of the research. The fourth and fifth sections focus on the delimitations and limitations of the study. The last section draws conclusions and makes recommendations for possible future research.

The main sections of this chapter are depicted in figure 7.1 below.

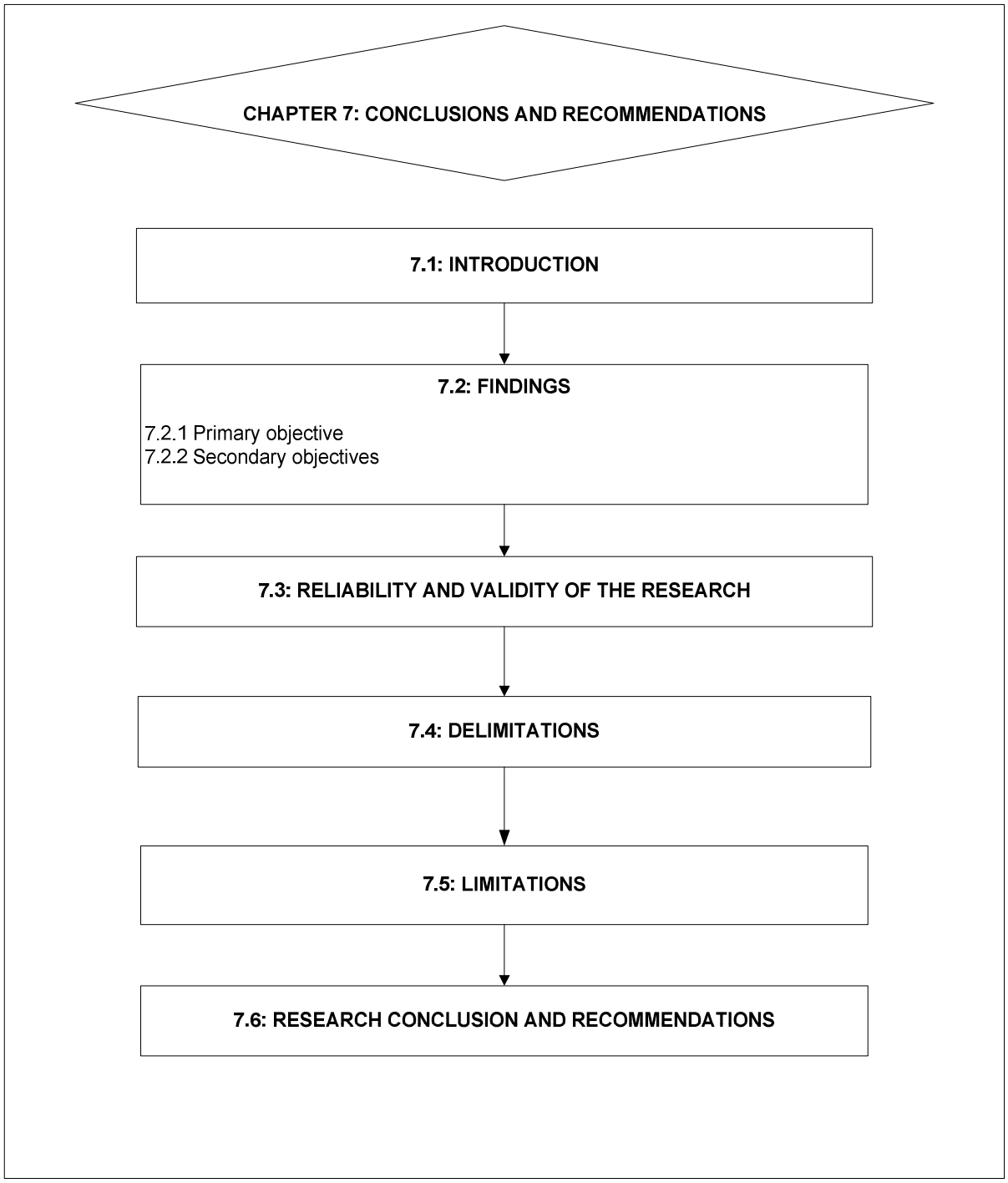

Figure 7.1: Layout of chapter 7

7.2 FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of leadership practices on service quality as a source of competitive advantage. Hence the impact of leadership, (the independent variable) on service quality (the dependent variable) was investigated.

This study was conducted within the positivist paradigm and a deductive process was applied. The data collection strategy consisted of cross-sectional quantitative surveys to study leadership practices and service quality. The service quality research data were gathered by means of the SERVQUAL instrument, while the leadership data were obtained through the LPI assessment instrument. As indicated in chapter 3, section 3.7.4, and chapter 4, section 4.9.3, respectively, a significant number of recent studies have utilised the SERVQUAL and LPI instruments.

The research population (the actual number of respondents) of the service quality survey consisted of 984 students from the five campuses in South Africa, located in three provinces - Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (n = 984). The survey also included demographics of the respondents (students). The demographic data were not discussed because they did not form part of the research objectives of this study.

Two LPI questionnaires (the “LPI self” and “LPI observer”) were used to collect data on the leadership practices of campus principals. The LPI survey included the principal of each of the five campuses (n = 5) who completed the “LPI self”. In addition, seven staff members (who were selected by the principal) as well as the principal’s manager completed the “LPI observer” (n = 40) questionnaire.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the LPI scoring software were used to perform and calculate all statistical procedures. Data were analysed by means of Cronbach’s alpha as a measure of internal consistency, descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations, gap analysis, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) and the coefficient of determination (R^2). Demographic data provided additional information on and insight into the participants in the survey.

In chapter 6, the quantitative results of the surveys were presented, described and analysed. The next two sections provide a synthesis of the literature review of the study and the findings in chapter 6 in relation to the research objectives of the study.

7.2.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the impact of leadership practices on service quality in PHE in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage. A comprehensive literature study on service quality (chapter 3) and leadership (chapter 4) was conducted and perspectives on these two constructs and the impact of leadership on service quality were obtained and analysed. The empirical findings in chapter 6, section 6.6, indicated the existence of an extremely strong positive linear correlation between leadership practices and service quality. Based on these results, it was confirmed that there is indeed a strong positive linear relationship between leadership practices and service quality. Figure 6.40 in chapter 6 depicted these findings visually.

The secondary objectives stated in chapter 1, section 1.4.2, contributed to the achievement of the primary objective. The next section will focus on how the secondary objectives were achieved.

7.2.2 Secondary objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were pursued:

(1) **To identify the service quality criteria used to evaluate the quality of service**

In order to achieve this objective, service quality and service quality criteria were analysed as part of the literature review. In chapter 3, section 3.5.1, service quality was defined as meeting and exceeding students' expectations and perceptions by constantly rendering a reliable service that conforms to predetermined requirements. Furthermore, the five dimensions of service quality that were examined in chapter 3,

section 3.5.2, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy were identified as criteria to evaluate the quality of service at a PHE provider. These five dimensions also comprised the core of the SERVQUAL instrument that was applied in the study.

(2) **To identify a leadership assessment instrument that measures leadership practices**

The second objective was addressed in chapter 4, sections 4.8 and 4.9. Eight different leadership assessment instruments were evaluated. The LPI instrument was identified as the most appropriate means of assessing leadership in a PHE provider. This was based on various considerations, including the fact that it has been widely applied in current research projects, including research in HE.

(3) **To analyse students' perceptions and expectations of service quality**

The third objective focused on the analysis of the perceptions and expectations of service quality. Similar to section 4.8 in chapter 4, sections 3.6 and 3.7 in chapter 3 provided an overview of eight service quality measurement instruments. The SERVQUAL instrument was identified as the most appropriate means of assessing service quality. The instrument assesses the service quality perceptions and expectations of respondents. The service quality gap was calculated by subtracting the service quality expectations from the perceptions of respondents and then calculating the mean gap score for each service quality dimension. This assessment was conducted as part of the empirical research in chapter 6, sections 6.3.2 and 6.4.

(4) **To evaluate how leaders view themselves in terms of exemplary leadership**

As indicated under secondary objective 2 above, the LPI instrument was identified as the most appropriate means of assessing leadership in this study. In chapter 4, section 4.9.2, it was explained that the instrument consists of two questionnaires, the "LPI self", which was completed by the principals on each of the five campuses, and the "LPI observer", which was completed by the leader's constituents. Appendices E

to I indicated the “LPI self” scores of each principal as part of the “five practices data summary”.

(5) **To evaluate how the organisation views its leader in terms of exemplary leadership**

Similar to secondary objective 4, objective 5 evaluated how the organisation (constituents) viewed their leader in terms of exemplary leadership. Appendices E to I indicated the “LPI observer” scores of each principal as part of the “five practices data summary”. The “observer” scores were utilised to calculate the correlation between leadership practices and service quality, as indicated in chapter 6, sections 6.6 and 6.7. The “observer” scores thus formed part of the data analysis of this study.

(6) **To recommend interventions to improve leadership and service quality in a PHE provider in South Africa**

The aim of the last objective was to recommend interventions to improve leadership and service quality in a PHE provider in South Africa. Based on the results obtained in chapter 6, the following guidelines are suggested:

Chapter 6, section 6.4.6, indicated that the service quality dimensions of “tangibles” and “responsiveness” represented the largest quality gap. Hence the first step for “The College” would be to improve its overall service quality by addressing these dimensions first. In terms of leadership improvement, table 6.6 in chapter 6 provided a summary of the LPI scores obtained from the five campuses of “The College”. To improve leadership, the campus principals should focus on addressing the practice of “Enable others to act” first by fostering collaboration and strengthening others.

Sections 7.2.1 and 7.2.2 indicated that the primary and secondary objectives of the study, as stated in chapter 1, section 1.4, were addressed. The next section will focus on the reliability and validity of this study.

7.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH

It was indicated in chapter 5, sections 5.3.1.1 and 5.3.1.2, that both the SERVQUAL and LPI demonstrated the psychometric properties of reliability (consistency from one measurement to the next), and validity (accurate measurement of the concepts) consistent with the literature findings. As stated in chapter 5, section 5.5, according to Gliem and Gliem (2003), Cronbach's alpha is a measure of the internal consistency of a set of items comprising a scale. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale will be.

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 in chapter 6, section 6.2, confirmed the internal consistency of both the expectation and perception dimensions of the SERVQUAL instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the expectation dimensions varied between 0.77 and 0.95, while the perception dimensions were in the 0.84 to 0.97 range. As mentioned by Kouzes and Posner (2003a:11), in chapter 5, section 5.3.1.2.1, all five leadership practices have strong internal reliability scores that are above 0.75 for the "self" version and above 0.85 for the "observer" version. Test-retest reliability scores are high in the 0.90 "plus" range. On the strength of the rules of thumb proposed by Gliem and Gliem (2003) in table 5.9, chapter 5, the reliability of both the SERVQUAL and LPI can be described as varying between "good" and "excellent".

Both the SERVQUAL and the LPI questionnaires have thus proven to be reliable and valid measuring instruments.

7.4 DELIMITATIONS

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), as explained in chapter 5, section 5.6, in this study, delimitations are what the researcher is not going to do. In this study, data were only collected from one of the four brands of the regulatory body, namely "The College". Hence the other three brands of the regulatory body and additional PHE providers in South Africa were excluded from the study. The outcomes of this study cannot therefore be generalised to all PHE providers in South Africa.

7.5 LIMITATIONS

It is necessary to highlight the limitations of this study since several notable limitations affected this study's findings and the researcher's ability to ultimately generalise them to the greater PHE population in South Africa.

Firstly, there is no one ideal model or instrument that can be used to measure service quality and leadership practices in the PHE environment in South Africa. Although the SERVQUAL and LPI instruments seemed to be the most widely applied in service quality and leadership research (as explained in chapter 3, section 3.7.4, and chapter 4, section 4.9.3, respectively), many additional instruments exist to measure these constructs. Further investigation using a different measurement instrument to assess service quality and leadership in the PHE environment could yield different or similar results, especially if the surveys were to be conducted during a major crisis or administration change.

Secondly, the research implemented the "LPI self" and "LPI observer" form for the leaders to rate themselves and the participants to rate their leaders. However, only the "LPI observer" form was actually used in the data analysis.

Thirdly, the data were obtained in a relatively short period of time and represented a "snapshot" as opposed to a trend. Hence only the "depth" and not the width of the data were examined.

Fourthly, as indicated in section 7.4 above, the study focused on "The College" only and not on other brands of the regulatory body or other PHE institutions. The findings therefore cannot be generalised to other PHE institutions in South Africa.

In conclusion, the principals may have felt uncomfortable being scrutinised by their constituents and the constituents selected to participate in the "LPI observer" survey with whom they had a good relationship. First-year students also participated in the SERVQUAL survey, and it is possible that at that early stage of their studies, they may not have had a clear perception of service quality at the campus. Also, the SERVQUAL questionnaire was completed as part of a class exercise, and the

students could have completed it as quickly as possible and not given their true opinion of service quality.

7.6 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A review of the literature indicated that a limited amount of research has been conducted on the impact of leadership practices on service quality. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to be designed to determine the impact of leadership practices on service quality in the PHE environment, moreover, in the South African PHE environment. Hence the findings of this research study could serve as the basis for future studies on leadership and service quality.

The empirical findings collectively suggested that there is a strong linear relationship between leadership practices and service quality. Table 7.1 below indicates the strength of this linear relationship.

Table 7.1: Correlation between leadership practices and service quality

		Overall mean of LPI - observed	Overall SERVQUAL gap
Overall mean of LPI - observed	Pearson correlation	1	
	Sig. (1-tailed)		
	N	5	
Overall SERVQUAL gap	Pearson correlation	.915*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.029	
	N	5	5

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

According to the data in table 7.1, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient has a strong positive linear relationship between leadership practices and service quality of r = 0.915. In addition, the coefficient of determination was calculated. According to Wegner (2010:424), the coefficient of determination is

defined as “the proportion (or percentage) of variation in the dependent variable, y, that is explained by the independent variable, x”. Given the correlation coefficient of r = 0.915, the coefficient of determination was calculated as $R^2 = (0.915)^2 = 0.847$ (85%).

Leadership practices (x) therefore explain 85% of the variation in service quality. The level of service quality based on leadership practices can be viewed with a high degree of confidence, since only 15% of the variation in service quality is unexplained by leadership practices. This is excellent news for PHE providers interested in improving their service quality as a source of competitive advantage.

Correlations between the dimensions of the SERVQUAL instrument were calculated and appeared to be strong. These were not included in the study because they were not relevant to the research objectives.

Table 6.6 in chapter 6 provided a summary of the LPI scores obtained from the five campuses of “The College”. In addition to the LPI mean scores for each campus, the mean scores of the five practices were also calculated. Although there were few variances in the scores, the lowest score was obtained in the leadership practice of “Enable others to act” while “Inspire a shared vision” obtained the highest score. It would therefore seem that to improve service quality, campus principals should start by addressing the practice of “Enable others to act” by fostering collaboration and strengthening others.

As mentioned previously, this study focused on a PHE provider in South Africa with five delivery sites across the country. In HE, future research could examine and compare service quality and leadership practices in other PHE providers as well as public institutions of HE. Future research could also be conducted in sectors other than education where nonprofit and for-profit organisations are competitors. Such research would promote a better understanding the impact of leadership on service quality.

In addition to the use of quantitative instruments such as SERVQUAL and LPI, future research could include the use of case study research, personal interviews and

focus groups. The use of such qualitative methods could help future investigators to identify new service quality and leadership research themes on which to focus. An ethnographic study, in which a researcher observes the service quality and leadership practices of the participants, and talks to students and the subordinates under the leader's authority, could produce interesting findings and affirm or disaffirm the findings of this study.

Furthermore, based on the criticism of the SERVQUAL instrument as described in chapter 3, section 3.7.4, further research could also be conducted to develop an improved model to measure service quality in the PHE environment in South Africa. As indicated in chapter 5, section 5.2, this study adopted a cross-sectional design. This provides a solid foundation for further research to conduct a similar study following a longitudinal method where a single group of people is observed over a period of time.

These recommendations were made with reference to the literature review and the findings of the empirical study.

This chapter concluded the study by summarising the findings and discussing the reliability and validity of the research, the limitations and delimitations. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations made for possible future research in this area.

Figure 7.2 below is a diagrammatical depiction of the research conducted from chapters 1 to 7.

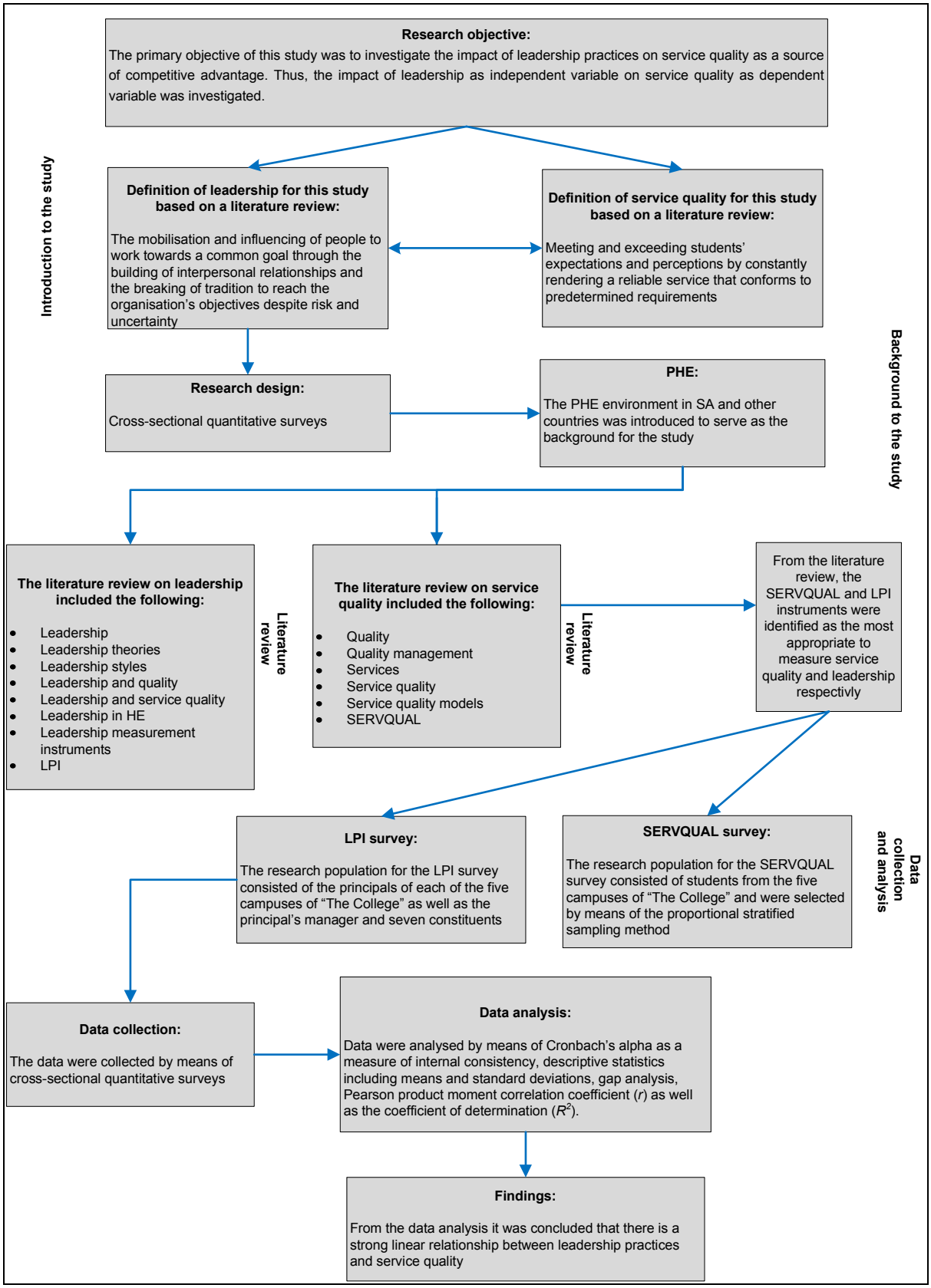

Figure 7.2: A diagrammatical depiction of this study

In conclusion, it would be worthwhile to repeat this study to include all PHE service providers in order to obtain a bigger picture of the impact of leadership on service quality. Alternatively, a study could be undertaken to compare the PHE and public HE domains in terms of the above constructs. This, however, was outside the scope of this study.

REFERENCES

Aaker, D.A., Kumar, V. & Day, G.S. 2007. *Marketing research.* 9th edition. New York: Wiley.

Aaker, S. 2003. Leadership styles of executive female administrators in Tennessee Community Colleges. Doctoral thesis, Tennessee State University, Nashville.

Abdullah, F. 2005. Measuring service quality in higher education: HEdPERV versus SERVPERV. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 24(1):31-47.

Abdullah, F. 2006a. The development of HEdPERF: a new measuring instrument of service quality for the higher education sector. *International Journal of Consumer Studies,* 30(6):569-581.

Abdullah, F. 2006b. Measuring service quality in higher education: HEdPERF versus SERVPERV. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 24(1):31-47.

Abdullah, M.C. 2009. A leadership and psycap: a study of the relationship between positive leadership behaviors and followers' positive psychological capital. Doctoral thesis, Capella University, Minneapolis.

Abubaker, B. 2002. Developing a framework for understanding a tourism service setting: an exploratory study. *Services Marketing Quarterly,* 23(3):17.

Aikens, C.H. 2006. *Quality: a corporate force*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Alban-Metcalfe, R.J. & Alimo-Metcalf, B. 2000. An analysis of the convergent and discriminant validity of the Transformational leadership Questionnaire. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 8(3):158-175.

Alban-Metcalfe, R.J. & Alimo-Metcalf, B. 2001. The development of a new leadership questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74:1-27.

Alban-Metcalfe, R.J. & Alimo-Metcalf, B. 2007. Development of a private sector version of the (engaging) Transformational Leadership Questionnaire. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 28(2):104-121.

Alzola, L.M. & Robaina, V.P. 2005. SERVQUAL: its applicability in electronic commerce B2C. *The Quality Management Journal,* 12(4):46-57.

Anderson, E. 1995. High tech v. high touch: a case study of TQM implementation in higher education. *Managing Service Quality,* 5(2):48-56.

Arambewela, R. & Hall, J. 2009. An empirical model of international student satisfaction. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 21(4):555-569.

Artley, J.B. 2008. The impact of leadership practices on Generation X employee commitment in the health insurance industry. Doctoral thesis, Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale.

Asmal, K. 2002. Private higher education in South Africa. *Perspectives in Education,* 20(4):125-128.

Asubonteng, P., McClearly, K.J. & Swan, J.E. 1996. SERVQUAL revisited: a critical review of service quality. *The Journal of Service Marketing,* 10(6):62-81.

Babakus, E. & Boller, G.W. 1992. An empirical assessment of the SERVQUAL scale. *Journal of Business Research.* New York: Elsevier Science, 24: 253-268.

Badri, M.A., Abdulla, M. & Al-Madani, A. 2005. Information technology center service quality: assessment and application of SERVQUAL. *The International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management,* 22(8):819-848.

Baki, B., Basfirinci, C.S., Cilingir, Z. & Murat, I. 2009. An application of integrating SERVQUAL and Kano's model into QFD for logistics services. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 21(1):106-126.

Barker, A.M., Sullivan, D.T. & Emery, M.J. 2006. *Leadership competencies for clinical managers: the Renaissance of transformational leadership.* London: Jones & Bartlett International.

Barnes, B.R. 2007. Analysing service quality: the case of post-graduate Chinese students. *Total Quality Management and Business Excellence*, 18(3):313-331.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. 1994. *Improving organizational effectiveness: through transformational leadership.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Batten, J.D. 1989. *Tough-minded leadership.* New York: Amacom.

Baxter, L. 2004. Up to scratch? *Occupational Health*, 56(3):24-27.

Bayraktaroglu, G. & Atrek, B. 2010. Testing the superiority and dimensionality of SERVQUAL vs. SERVPERF in higher education. *The Quality Management Journal,* 17(1):47-59.

Behling, O. & McFillen, J.M. 1996. A syncretical model of charismatic/transformational leadership. *Group and Organizational Management*, 21(2):163-191.

Bicheno, J. & Catherwood, P. 2005. *Six Sigma and the Quality Toolbox for service and manufacturing.* Buckingham, UK: Picsie Books.

Big Dog & Little Dog's Performance Juxtaposition. [S.a.]. *Leadership self-assessment activity.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/survlead.html> [accessed on 2009-05-24].

Bitner, M.J. 1992. Servicescape: the impacts of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing* 56(2):57-67.

Bodla, M.A. & Nawaz, M.M. 2010. Comparative study of full range leadership model among faculty members in public and private sector higher education institutes and universities. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4):208-214.

Botha, N. 2009. Some current curriculum issues in South African higher education, in Brady, M.K., Cronin, J.J. & Brand, R.R. 2002. Performance-only measurement of service quality: a replication and extension. *Journal of Business Research,* 55:17-31.

Bratton, J. 2007. *Work and organisational behaviour*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Breneman, D.W. 2005. Entrepreneurship in higher education. *New Directions for Higher Education,* 129:3-9.

Brochado, A. 2009. Comparing alternative instruments to measure service quality in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education,* 17(2):174-190.

Brogowicz, A.A., Delene, L.M. & Lyth, D.M. 1990. A synthesised service quality model with managerial implications. *International Journal of Service Industry Management,* 1(1):27-44.

Broome, P.H. 2003. The relationship between perceptions of presidential leadership practices and organizational effectiveness in Southern Community Colleges. Doctoral thesis, University of Mississippi, Oxford.

Brue, G. 2002. *Six Sigma for managers*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Buttle, F. 1996. SERVQUAL: review, critique, research agenda. *European Journal of Marketing,* 30(1):8–32.

Byraktaroglu, G. & Atrek, B. 2010. Testing the superiority and dimensionality of SERVQUAL vs SERFPERF in Higher Education. *The Quality Management Journal,* 17(1):47-59.

Carless, S.A., Wearing, A.J. & Mann, L. 1994. Transformational leadership: does it make a difference? 3rd Western Academy of Management International Conference, Brisbane, 11-13 July.

Carless, S.A., Wearing, A.J. & Mann, L. 2000. A short measure of transformational leadership. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 14(3):389-405.

Carrillat, F.A., Jaramillo, F. & Mulki P.J. 2007. The validity of the SERVQUAL and SERVPERF scales: a meta-analytic view of 17 years of research across five continents. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 18(5):472-490.

Chart Your Course International. [S.a.]. Innovative leadership assessment. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.chartcourse.com/articleassess.htm> [accessed on 2009-05-24].

Chau, V.S. & Kao, Y. 2009. Bridge over troubled water or long and winding road? Gap-5 in airline service quality performance measures. *Managing Service Quality,* 19(1):106-134.

Chowdhury, M.U. 2009. Customer expectations and management perceptions in healthcare services in Bangladesh: an overview. *Journal of Services Research*, 8(2):121-140.

Clawson, J.G. 2006. *Level three leadership: getting below the surface*. 3rd edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Co, M.J., Groenewald, J., Mitchell,B., Nayager, T., Van Zyl, J., Visser, K., Train, W. & Emanual, B. 2006. *Entrepreneurship: fresh perspectives.* Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillside, NJ: Erlbaum.

Colquitt, J.A., Lepine, A.J. & Wesson, M.J. 2011. *Organisational behaviour: improving performance and commitment in the workplace*. 2nd edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Conger, J.A. 1999. Charismatic and transformational leadership in organisations: an insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2):145-179.

Conger, J.A. & Riggo, R.E. 2007. *The practice of leadership: developing the next generation of leaders.* San Francisco, CA: Wiley.

Conger, J.A., Kanungo, R.N., Menon, S.T. & Mathur, P. 1997. Measuring charisma: dimensionality and validity of the Conger-Kanungo scale of charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Services*, 14(3):290-302.

Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. 2003. *Business research methods.* 8th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cosser, M. 2002. Quality through regulation? Towards quality provision in the South African private higher education sector. *Perspectives in Education,* 20(4):111-121.

Council on Higher Education. 2003. *Higher Education Monitor no.1: the state of private higher education in South Africa.* Pretoria: Council on Higher Education.

Cronin, J.J. & Taylor, S.A. 1992. Measuring service quality: a re-examination and extension. *Journal of Marketing,* 56(3):55-68.

Cronin, J.J. & Taylor, S.A. 1994. SERVPERF vs SERVQUAL: reconciling performance-based and perceptions-minus-expectations measurement of service quality. *Journal of Marketing,* 58(1):125-131.

Dale, B.G., Van der Wiele, T. & Van Iwaarden, J. (eds). 2007. *Managing quality*. Malden: Blackwell.

Dauffenbach, V.K. 1995. Leadership practices and job satisfaction: an examination of the relationship between academic deans and department chairpersons. Doctoral thesis., Western Michigan University, Michigan.

Davies, B., Barron, S. & Harris, K. 1999. Observable oral participation in the servuction system: toward a content and process model. *Journal of Business Research,* 44:47-53.

De´caudin, JM. & Lacoste, D. 2010. Are services advertised differently? An empirical examination. *Journal of Services Marketing,* 24(7):546-543.

Doh, J.P. & Stumpf, S.A. 2005. *Handbook on responsible leadership and governance in global business.* Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Doolos, C.L. 1997. Leadership: developing a personal understanding. *The Armed Forces Comptroller*, 42(3):44.

Drafke, M. 2009. *The human side of organisations*. 10th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ehlers, T. & Lazenby, K. 2010. *Strategic management: South African concepts and cases*. 3rd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Etgar, M. & Fuchs, G. 2009. Why and how service quality perceptions impact consumer responses. *Managing Service Quality,* 19(4):474-485.

Evans, J.R. 2011. *Quality management, organization and strategy*. 6th edition. Cincinnati: South-Western.

Fehnel, R. 2007. Private higher education, in *Transformation in higher education: global pressures and local realities,* edited by N. Cloete, P. Maassen, R. Fehnel, T. Moja, T. Gibbon & H. Perold. Dordrecht: Springer.

Feinhberg, J.B., Ostroff, C. & Burke, W.W. 2005. The role of within-group agreement in understanding transformational leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78:471-488.

Fendt, P.F. & Varek, G.M. 1992. *Quality improvement in continuing higher education and service organisations.* Lewiston, NY: Edwin Mellen Press.

Field, A. 2005. *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. 2nd edition. London: Sage.

Foster, S.T. 2010. *Managing quality: integrating the supply chain.* 4th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Fourie, M. 2009. Institutional governance in SA higher education: for the common good or political power play? in *Higher education in South Africa: a scholarly look behind the scenes,* edited by E. Bitzer. Stellenbosch: SUN Media.

French, R., Rayner, C., Rees, G. & Rumbles, S. 2009. *Organizational behaviour*. West Sussex: Wiley.

Garraway, O.L. 2008. A study of the relationship between corporate leaders' beliefs and the firm's strategic decisions. Doctoral thesis, University of Phoenix, Phoenix.

Getz, D. 1997. *Event management and event tourism.* New York: Cognizant Communications Corporation.

Ghobadian, A., Speller, S. & Jones, M. 1994. Service quality concepts and models. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management,* 11(9):43-66.

Gilmore, A. & McMullan, R. 2009. Scales in service marketing research: a critique and way forward. *European Journal of Marketing,* 43(5/6):640-651.

Gliem, J.A. & Gliem, R.R. 2003. *Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scales.* Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education.

Goetsch, D.L. & Davis, S.B. 2006. *Quality management: introduction to total quality management for production, processing, and services.* 5th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Grönfeldt, S. & Strother, J. 2006. *Service leadership: the quest for competitive advantage.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Grönroos, C. 1984. A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing,* 18(4):36-44.

Grönroos, C. 1988. Service quality: the six criteria of good perceived service quality. *Review of business,* Winter:10-13.

Gryna, F.M., Chua, R.C.H. & DeFeo, J.A. 2007. *Juran's quality planning and analysis for enterprise quality.* 5th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ham, L. & Hayduk, S. 2003. Gaining competitive advantages in higher education: analyzing the gap between expectations and perceptions of service quality. *International Journal of Value-Based Management,* 16(2):223-242.

Harding, P. 2005. Quality and conceptual tool-making. *Management Today,* 21(8): 31-32.

Hay, D. & Monnapula-Mapesela, M. 2009. South African higher education before and after 1994: a policy analysis perspective, in *Higher education in South Africa: a scholarly look behind the scenes,* edited by E. Bitzer. Stellenbosch: SUN Media.

Haywood-Farmer, J. 1988. A conceptual model of service quality. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 8(6):19-29.

Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S.E., Slocum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H.B., Louw, L. & Oosthuizen, T. 2006. *Management.* 2nd South African edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Higher Education Act 101 of 1997. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.che.ac.za/documents/d000004/Higher_Education_Act.pdf> [accessed on 2009-12-03].

Hightower, R., Brady, M.K. & Baker, T.L. 2002. Investigating the role of the physical environment in hedonic service consumption: an exploratory study of sporting events. *Journal of Business Research,* 55(9):697.

Holt, D.J. 2003. Administrator behaviour leadership practices: a Comparative assessment of administrators and observers at selected community colleges in Texas. Doctoral thesis, Texas A&M University, Houston.

Hough, J. & Neuland, E. 2007. *Global business. environments and strategies: managing for global competitive advantage.* 3rd edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Hughey, D.W., Chawla S.K. & Khan Z.U. 2003. Measuring the quality of university computer labs using SERVQUAL: a longitudinal study. *The Quality Management Journal*, 10(3):33.

Hui, C.H., Chiu, W.C.K., Yu, P.L.H., Cheng, K. & Tse, H.H.M. 2007. The effects of service climate and the effective leadership behavior of supervisors on frontline employee service quality: a multi-level analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psycology,* 80:151-172.

Hyatt, K.E. 2007. The influence of leadership practices on subordinates' perceived organizational support in MBA students. Doctoral thesis, Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale.

International Education Association of South Africa. 2007. *South Africa in Africa: defining the landscape of higher education.* Durban: International Education Association of South Africa.

Jabnoun, N. & Juma AL Rasasi, A. 2005. Transformational leadership and service quality in UAE hospitals. *Managing Service Quality*, 15(1):70-81.

Kandampully, J. & Kandampully, R. 2006. Service system: a strategic approach to innovate and manage service superiority. in *Managing tourism and hospitality services: theory and international applications,* edited by B. Prideaux, G. Moscardo & E. Laws Wallingford, UK: CAB International.

Kang, G.D. & James, J. 2004. Service quality dimensions: an examination of Grönroos service quality model. *Managing Service Quality,* 14(4):266-277.

Kgaile, A. & Morrison, K. 2006. Measuring and targeting internal conditions for school effectiveness in the Free State of South Africa. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership,* 34(1):47-68.

Khoshafian, S. 2007. *Service orientated enterprises.* Broken Sound Parkway, NY: Averbach.

Kim, Y., Lee, S. & Yun, D. 2004. Integrating current and competitive service-quality level analysis for service-quality improvement programmes. *Managing Service Quality,* 14(4):288-296.

Koen, M. & Bester M. 2009. Two master's students' perspectives on higher education studies: in pursuit of scholarship, in *Higher education in South Africa: a scholarly look behind the scenes,* edited by E. Bitzer. Stellenbosch: SUN Media.

Kotler, P. 2000. *Marketing management: the millennium edition.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 2003a. *The five practices of exemplary leadership.* 3rd edition. San Francisco: Wiley.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 2003b. *Leadership practices inventory: facilitator's guide.* 3rd edition. San Francisco: Wiley.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 2007. *The leadership challenge*. 4th edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. [S.a.]. *Leadership challenge facilitators guide.* [Online]. Available from: <http://wwwleadershipchallenge.com/WileyCDA/Section/id-131088.html> [accessed on 2008-12-23].

Kruss, G. 2002. More, better, different? Understanding private higher education in South Africa. *Perspectives in Education,* 20(4):15-28.

Kruss, G. 2004a. Examining private higher education in South Africa. *HSRC Review*, 2(4):15.

Kruss, G. 2004b. *Chasing credentials and mobility: private higher education in South Africa.* Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Kumar, M., Kee, F.T. & Manshor, A.T. 2009. Determining the relative importance of critical factors in delivering service quality of Banks: an application of dominance analysis in SERVQUAL model. *Managing Service Quality,* 19(2):211-228.

Kumar, V. & Kumar, U. 2011. The role of leadership competencies for implementing TQM: an empirical study in the Thai manufacturing industry. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management*, 28(2):159-219.

Lai, F., Hutchinson, J., Li, D. & Bai, C. 2007. An empirical assessment of the application of SERVQUAL in mainland China's mobile communications industry. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management,* 24(3):244-262.

Lamb, C.W., Hair, J.F., McDaniel, C., Boshoff, C. & Terblanche, N.S. 2004. *Marketing.* 2nd South African edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Langbein, M.L. 2010. The effects of age and experience on levels of leadership practices of nontraditional undergraduate management students. Doctoral thesis, Robert Morris University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Laohavichien, T., Fredendall, L.D. & Cantrell, R.S. 2009. The effects of transformational and transactional leadership on quality improvement. *The Quality Management Journal,* 16(2):7-24.

Lau, P.M., Akbar, K. & Gun Fie, D.Y. 2005. Service quality: a study of the luxury hotels in Malaysia. *The Journal of American Academy of Business,* 7(2):46-55.

Leadership self-assessment. [S.a.]. *Tools for improved advocacy.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.nsba.org/sbot/toolkit/leadSA.html> [accessed on 2009-05-24].

Lee, J. 2005. Measuring service quality in a medical setting in a developing country: the applicability of SERVQUAL. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 27(2):1-14.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2010. *Practical research.* 9th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Leigh, J.M., Shapiro, R.E. & Penney, S.H. 2010. Developing diverse, collaborative leaders: an empirical program evaluation. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies,* 17(4):370-379.

Levy, D.C. 2002. Commercial private higher education: South Africa as a stark example. *Perspectives in Education,* 20(4):29-39.

Levy, D.C. 2003. Profits and practicality: how South Africa epitomizes the global surge in commercial private higher education, in *PROPHE Working Paper Series.* New York: PROPHE (WP No. 2 March). [Online]. Available from: < http://www.albany.edu/dept/eaps/prophe/publication/paper.html> [accessed on 2010-03-25].

Lewis, B.R. 2007. Managing service quality, in *Managing quality,* edited by B.G. Dale, T. Van der Wiele & J. Van Iwaarden. Malden: Blackwell.

Lucas, A.F. 2003. The determinants and effects of slot servicescape satisfaction in a Las Vegas hotel casino. *UNLV Gaming Research and Review Journal,* 7(1):109-108.

Mabizela, M. 2005. *The business of higher education: a study of public-private partnerships in the provision of higher education in South Africa.* Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Mabizela, M. 2006. Recounting the state of private higher education, in *Growth and expansion of private higher education in Africa,* edited by N.V. Varghese. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.

Macgregor, K. 2009. Southern Africa: study identifies 20 HE challenges. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20090802095036735> [accessed on 2010-03-02].

Mancheno-Smoak, L., Endres, G.M., Potak, R. & Athanasaw, Y. 2009. The individual cultural values and job satisfaction of the transformational leader. *Organization Development Journal,* 27(3):9-21.

Manning, G. & Curtis, K. 2003. *The art of leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Marcketti, S.B., Arendt, S.W. & Shelley, M.C. 2011. Leadership in action: student leadership development in an event management course. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal,* 32(2):170-189.

Marden, T. 2007. *Principles of strategic management.* 3rd edition. Hampshire, UK: Ashgate.

Markovic, S. 2006. Expected service quality measurement in tourism higher education. *Nase Gospodarstvo*, 52(1/2):86-95.

Martinez, M.C. & Wolverton, M. 2009. *Innovative strategy making in higher education.* Miami: Information Age.

Mattsson, J. 1992. A service quality model based on ideal value standard. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 3(3):18-33.

Matviuk, S.G. 2010a. A study of Peruvian entrepreneurs' leadership expectations. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 16(1):65-70.

Matviuk, S.G. 2010b. A correlational study of culture and leadership expectations in a Mexican manufacturing plant. *The Business Review, Cambridge,* 15(1):14-19.

McCann, J.A., Langford, P.H. & Rawlings, R.M. 2006. Testing Behling and McFillen's syncretical model of charismatic transformational leadership. *Group and Organizational Management,* 31(2):237-263.

McKenna, T. 2003. Why service strategies fail. *National Petroleum News,* 95(2):15.

Milakovich, M.E. 2006. *Improving service quality in the global economy: achieving high performance in the public and private sectors.* 2nd edition. Broken Sound Parkway, NW: Auerbach.

Mind tools. [S.a.]. *The leadership motivation assessment.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_01.htm> [accessed on 2009-05-24].

Moscardo, G. 2006. Using the critical incidents technique to understand service quality in tourist accommodation, in *Managing tourism and hospitality services: theory and international applications,* edited by B. Prideaux, G. Moscardo & E. Laws.. Wallingford, UK: CAB International.

Mukherjee, A. & Nath, A. 2005. An empirical assessment of comparative approaches to service quality measurement. *The Journal of Services Marketing,* 19(2):174-184.

Nevarez, C. & Wood, L. 2010. *Community college leadership and administration: theory, practice and change*. New York: Peter Lang.

Nicholls, R. 2010. New directions for customer-to-customer interaction research. *Journal of Services Marketing,* 24(1):87-97.

Niemann, R. & Kotze, T. 2006. The relationship between leadership practices and organisational culture: an education management perspective. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(4):609-624.

Nienaber, H. 2010. Conceptualisation of management and leadership. *Management Decision*, 48(5):661-675.

Nzimande, B. 2009. Challenges facing the South African higher education system. 250th seminar of the University of Johannesburg's Faculty of Humanities, Johannesburg, 14 August. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.politicsweb.co.za/politicsweb/view/politicsweb/en/page71656?oid=139807&sn=Detail> [accessed on 2010-08-25].

O'Brian, E.M. & Deans, K.R. 1996. Educational supply chain: a tool for strategic planning in higher education. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 14(2):33-40.

Oakland, J.S. 2003. *TQM: text with cases*. 3rd edition. Oxford: Elsevier.

Odegaard, L.C. 2008. The relationship between teacher-identified principal leadership behaviour and student achievement in South Dakota secondary schools. Doctoral thesis, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota.

Optimal thinking. [S.a.]. *Leadership skills assessment questionnaire.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.optimalthinking.com/leader-assessment.asp> [accessed on 2009-05-24].

Osseo-Asare, A.E., Longbottom, D. & Chourides, P. 2007. Managerial leadership for total quality improvement in UK higher education. *The TQM Magazine,* 19(6):541-560.

Osseo-Asare, A.E., Longbottom, D. & Murphy, W.D. 2005. Leadership best practices for sustaining quality in UK higher education from the perspective of the EFQM Excellence Model. *Quality Assurance in Education,* 13(2):148-170.

Palmer, A. 1998. *Principles of services marketing.* 2nd edition. London: McGraw-Hill.

Palmer, A. 2005. *Principles of services marketing.* 4th edition. London: McGraw-Hill.

Palmer, A. 2008. *Principles of services marketing*. 5th edition. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. & Berry, L.L. 1985. A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing,* 49:41-50.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. & Berry, L.L. 1988. SERVQUAL: a multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing,* 64(1):12-40.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. & Berry, L.L. 1991. Refinement and reassessment of the SERVQUAL scale. *Journal of Retailing,* 67(4):420-450.

Pearce, J.A. & Robinson, R.B. 2005. *Formulation, implementation and control of competitive strategy.* 9th edition. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Pearce, J.A. & Robinson, R.B. 2011. *Strategic management: formulation, implementation and control.* 12th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Philip, G. & Hazlett, S.A. 1997. The measurement of service quality: a new P-C-P attributes model. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management,* 14(3):260-286.

Pieters, P. & Botschen, G. 1999. Special issue on service marketing and management: European contributions. *Journal of Business Research,* 44:1-4.

Plowman, R.D. 1991. The perceptions of presidential leadership behaviour and institutional environment by presidents and vice presidents of selected four-year colleges and universities in Florida. Doctoral thesis, University of Mississippi, Waco, Mississippi

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H. & Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviours. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2):107-142.

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B. & Bommer, H. 1996. 'Transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organisational citizenship behaviours', *Journal of Management,* 22(2): 259-298.

Politicsweb. 2009. Nzimande on the challenges facing higher education. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.politicsweb.co.za/politicsweb/view/politicsweb/en/page71656?oid=139807&sn=Detail> [accessed on 2010-08-25].

Prideaux, B., Moscardo, G. & Laws, E. 2006. Quality and service management perspectives, in *Managing tourism and hospitality services: theory and international applications,* edited by B. Prideaux, G. Moscardo & E. Laws. Walingford, UK: CAB International.

Pycraft, M., Singh, H., Phihlela, K., Slack, N., Chambers, S. & Johnston, R. 2010. *Operations management*. 2nd edition. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Quaglieri, P.L., Penney, S.H. & Waldner, J. 2007. Developing future business and civic leaders: the emerging leaders program. *Management Decision,* 45(10):1685-1694.

Quinn, A., Lemay, G., Larsen, P. & Johnson, D.M. 2009. Service quality in higher education. *Total Quality Management,* 20(2):139-152.

Qureshi, T.M., Shaukat, M.Z. & Hijazi, S.T. 2010. Service quality SERVQUAL model in higher educational institutions: what factors are to be considered? *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business,* 2(5):281-290.

Radder, L. & Han, X. 2009. Service quality of on-campus student housing: a South African experience. *The International Business and Economics Research Journal,* 8(11):107-119.

Rakoff, S. 2010. Expanding leader capability: an exploratory study of the effect of daily practices for leader development. Doctoral thesis, Antioch University, Seattle.

Ramphal, R. 2011a. *ISO 9001:2008 quality management systems: an interpretation handbook.* Sandton: Picsie Press.

Ramphal, R.R. 2011b. A quality framework for services in a shared services environment. DTech thesis, Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria.

Rausch, E. 1999. More effective leadership can bring higher service quality. *Managing Service Quality,* 9(3):154-157.

Riaz, A. & Haider, M.H. 2010. Role of transactional and transformational leadership on job satisfaction and career satisfaction. *Business and Economic Horizons,* 1(1):29-38.

Robbins, S.P. & DeCenzo, A. 2008. *Fundamentals of management: essential concepts and applications.* 6th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Roelofse, F. 2007. An exploratory study into the multidimensional nature of quality in analytical laboratories: managerial implications. *The Quality Management Journal,* 14(3):7-14.

Roi, R.C. 2006. Leadership, corporate culture and financial performance. Doctoral thesis, University of San Francisco, San Francisco.

Ruiqi, Z & Adrian, P. 2009. Using SERVQUAL to measure the service quality of travel agents in Guangzhau, South China. *Journal of Services Research,* 9(1):87-107.

Salkind, N.J. 2009. *Exploring research.* 7th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2007. *Research methods for business students.* 4th edition. Edinburgh Gate, Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Seth, N., Deshmukh, S.G. & Vrat, P. 2005. Service quality models: a review. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management,* 22(9):913-949.

Smith, G. & Smith, A. 2007. Evaluating service quality in universities: a service department perspective. *Quality Assurance in Education,* 15(3):334-351.

South Africa. Council on Higher Education. 2009. *Higher Education Monitor no. 8. The state of higher education in South Africa*. [Online]. Available from: < http://www.che.ac.za/publications/ALL>> [accessed on 2010-03-08].

South Africa. Department of Education. 1997. *Education White Paper 3: a programme for the transformation of higher education.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.education.gov.za/dynamic/dynamic.aspx?pageid=329&catid=12&category=White papers&legtype=7> [accessed: 2010-03-08].

South Africa. Department of Education. 2009. Register of private higher education institutions. [Online]. Available from: < http://www.education.gov.za and look under DoE Branches/Higher Education/Private Higher Education Institutions/Directorate Documents/Register of Private Higher Education Institutions> [accessed: 2009-04-04].

South Africa. Department of Education. 2010. Register of private higher education institutions. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.education.gov.za/dynamic/dynamic.aspx?pageid=326&dirid=47> [accessed: 2010-02-03].
South Africa. Department of Education. [S.a.]. *Strategic plan 2007 to 2011.*

Spendlove, M. 2007. Competencies for effective leadership in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(5):407-417.

Spigener, J.B. 2004. Beyond management: using leadership to achieve your goals in quality. *Annual Quality Congress Proceedings: American Society for Quality Control,* Milwaukee. *ASQ*:229-232.

Spreng, R.A. & Mackoy, R.D. 1996. An empirical examination of a model of perceived service quality and satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(2):201-214.

Stamatis, D.H. 1996. *Total quality service.* Delray Beach, FL: St. Lucia Press.

Staub, R.E. 1997. *The heart of leadership: 12 practices of courageous leaders.* Provo, UT: Executive Excellence.

Subotzky, G. 2003a. Public higher education, in *Human resources development review 2003: education, employment and skills in South Africa.* Pretoria: HSRC Press.

Subotzky, G. 2003b. Private higher education and training, in *Human resources development review 2003: education, employment and skills in South Africa.* Pretoria: HSRC Press.

Summers, D.C.S. 2005. *Quality management: creating and sustaining organisational effectiveness*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Suwandee, A. 2009. Organizational leadership development among the middle executives of Kasem Bundit University, Thailand. Doctoral thesis. Pepperdine University, Malibu, California.

Swart, M.P. 2006. Service quality: a survey amongst convention consumers at the CSIR International Convention Centre. MCom dissertation, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.

Sylvester, M.H. 2009. Transformational leadership behaviours of frontline sales professionals: an investigation of the impact of resilience and key demographics. Doctoral thesis, Capella University, Minneapolis.

Tahir, I.M., Abu Bakar, N.M. & Ismail, W.Z.W. 2010. Importance-performance analysis of service quality among business students: an exploratory study. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business,* 2(1):132-141.

The leadership challenge. [S.a.]. Ask an expert. [Online]. Available from: <http://eu.leadershipchallenge.com/WileyCDA/Section/id-131340.html#June09> [accessed on 2011-07-05].

The leadership challenge. [S.a.]. History. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/WileyCDA/Section/id-131054.html> [accessed on 2010-12-23].

Thomas, M. 2006. *The complete CEO*: *the executive's guide to constant peak performance.* West Sussex: Capstone..

Thompson, N. 2009. *People skills*. 3rd edition. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Thorp, H. & Goldstein, B. 2010. *Engines of innovation: the entrepreneurial university in the twenty-first century.* Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.

Tilak, J.B.G. 2006. Private higher education: philanthropy to profits, in *Higher education in the world 2006: the financing of universities.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Transformational leadership. 2010. Transformational leadership evaluation methods and tools. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.transformationalleadership.net/imarticle.php?articleid=246003> [accessed on 2011-07-05].

Trivellas, P. & Dargenidou, D. 2009. Leadership and service quality in higher education. *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences,* 1(3):294-310.

Tustin, D.H., Ligthelm, A.A., Martins, J.H. & Van Wyk, H.de J. 2005. *Marketing research in practice.* Pretoria: University of South Africa.

University World News. 2009. *Southern Africa: study identifies 20 HE challenges.* [Online]. Available from: <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20090802095036735> [accessed on 2010-03-02].

Utts, J.M. & Heckard, R.F. 2007. *Mind on statistics*. 3rd edition. Duxbury: Thomson Learning.

Van Ameijde, J.D.J, Nelson, P.C., Billsberry, J. & Van Meurs, N. 2009. Improving leadership in higher education institutions. *Higher Education,* 58:763-779.

Van der Wal, R.W.E., Pampallis, A. & Bond, C. 2002. Service quality in a telecommunications company: a South African experience. *Managing Service Quality,* 12(5):323-335.

Varey, R. 1993. The course of higher education. *Managing Service Quality,* September:45-49.

Vasquez-Guignard, S.J. 2010. Latina university professors: insights into the journeys of those who strive to leadership within academia. Doctoral thesis, Pepperdine University, Malibu, California.

Von Eck, C. & Verwey, A. 2007. Change dynamics and related leadership competencies. *Journal of Human Resource Management,* 5(2):42-50.

Voon, B.H. 2006. Linking a service-driven market orientation to service quality. *Managing Service Quality,* 16(6):595-619.

Voss, R., Gruber, T. & Szmigin, I. 2007. Service quality in higher education: the role of student expectations. *Journal of Business Research,* 60:949-959.

Waldman, D.A. 1994. The contributions of total quality management to a theory of work performance. *Academy of Management Review,* 19(3):510-536.

Wang, V.C.X. & Berger, J. 2010. Critical analysis of leadership needed in higher education. *International Forum of Teaching and Studies*, 6(2):3-12.

Wang, Y., Lo, H. & Yang, Y. 2004. An integrated framework for service quality, customer value, satisfaction: evidence from China's telecommunication industry. *Information Systems Frontiers,* 6(4):325-340.

Wardell, M.J.L. 2010. Leadership behaviours and practices among executive women of colour in higher education. Doctoral thesis, Pepperdine University, Malibu, California.

Wegner, T. 2010. *Applied business statistics.* 2nd edition. Cape Town: Juta.

Wilson, A., Zeithaml, V.A., Bitner, J. & Gremler, D. 2008. *Services marketing.* Maidenhead, Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.

Wisniewski, M. 2001. Using SERVQUAL to assess customer satisfaction with public sector services. *Managing Service Quality,* 11(6):380-388.

Wong, H.D., Rexha, N. & Phau, I. 2008. Re-examining traditional service quality in an e-banking era. *International Journal of Bank Marketing,* 26(7):526-545.

Yang, L. 2009. Narcissistic leadership in organizations. MA dissertation, University of Guelph, Ottawa, Ontario.

Yeo, R.K. 2008. Brewing service quality in higher education: characteristics of ingredients that make up the recipe. *Quality Assurance in Education,* 16(3):266-286.

Yielder, J. & Codling, A. 2004. Management and leadership in the contemporary university. *Journal of Higher education Policy and Management*, 26(3):315-328.

Zeithaml, V.A., Parasuraman, A. & Berry, L.L. 1990. *Delivering service quality: balancing customer perceptions and expectations.* New York: Free Press.

Appendix A: SERVQUAL

RESEARCH STUDY: SERVICE QUALITY AT THE COLLEGE

Research conducted by: R. Dirkse van Schalkwyk

Dear Respondent,

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Riaan Dirkse van Schalkwyk.

The purpose of the study is to explore the level of **service quality** experienced by students.

Please note the following:

- This study is an ***anonymous*** survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as ***strictly confidential.*** You cannot be identified in person on the basis of your responses.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as ***completely and honestly*** as possible. This should not take more than 15 minutes of your time.
- The results of the study will be used for ***academic purposes only*** and may be published in an academic journal. I will provide you with a summary of my findings on request.
- Please contact your campus principal if you have any questions or comments about the study.

Thanking you, in advance, for your contribution to this study.

Kind regards

Riaan Dirkse van Schalkwyk

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING BY MARKING THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK:

Campus you are registered with:

Pretoria ☐

Braamfontein ☐

Benoni ☐

Cape Town ☐

Durban ☐

1st year ☐

2nd year ☐

Male ☐

Female ☐

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING BY TYPING YOUR RESPONSE IN THE SPACE PROVIDED:

Qualification you are registered for:

_____

Home language:

_____

QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUCTIONS

Please read the following guidelines and answer *ALL* the questions below.

The questionnaire requires you to evaluate service quality at the College. Statements relating to the service quality of the College are provided. Please indicate your perception of the level of service quality provided, in relation to your expectation of the level of service quality provided. Remember there are no right or wrong answers.

EXPECTATION

This is the quality of service you expect from the personnel of the College (second column). Please consider the level of service you would expect for each of the statements below. If you think a feature requires a very high level of service quality (strongly agree), mark number 7 in the second column. If you think a feature requires a very low level of service quality (strongly disagree), mark number 1 in the second column. If your feelings are less strong, mark a number in between.

PERCEPTION

This is your experience of the service quality that the College provides (third column). Please use the same 7-point scale to evaluate the level of service quality you experience by marking the appropriate number in the third column.

STATEMENT:	My **EXPECTATION** of the service quality is:	My **PERCEPTION** of the College's service quality is:
	LOW 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **HIGH**	**LOW** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **HIGH**
Tangibles		
1. The College has up-to-date equipment.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Personnel at the College are well dressed and neat at all times.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Reliability		
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. When students have problems, the personnel of the College are sympathetic and reassuring.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Responsiveness		
10. The College tells students when services will be provided.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College's personnel.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Personnel of the College are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Assurance		
14. Students can trust the College personnel.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. The College personnel inspire confidence.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. The College personnel are polite.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Empathy		
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. Lecturers give the students individual attention.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix B: “LPI self”

LPI SELF

Leadership Practices Inventory

by JAMES M. KOUZES
& BARRY Z. POSNER

II

INSTRUCTIONS

Type your name in the space provided at the top of the next page. Below your name you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviours. Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE on the right, ask yourself:

"How frequently do I engage in the behaviour described?"

When selecting your response to each statement:

- Be realistic about the extent to which you *actually* engage in the behaviour.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave.
- DO answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behaviour. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply to you, it's probably because you don't frequently engage in the behaviour. In that case, assign a rating 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the square to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement *must* have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

1	= Almost Never
2	= Rarely
3	= Seldom
4	= Once in a While

5 = Occasionally

6 = Sometimes

7 = Fairly often

8 = Usually

9 = Very Frequently

10 = Almost Always

Your Name: _____

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviours? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	
2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	
3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	
4. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.	
5. I praise people for a job well done.	
6. I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.	
7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.	
8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	
9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.	
10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	
11. I follow through on promises and commitments that I make.	
12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	

13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organisation for innovative ways to improve what we do. ☐
14. I treat others with dignity and respect. ☐
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects. ☐
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance. ☐
17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realised by enlisting in a common vision. ☐
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected. ☐
19. I support the decisions that people make on their own. ☐
20. I publicly recognise people who exemplify commitment to shared values. ☐
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organisation. ☐
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish. ☐
23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on. ☐
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work. ☐
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments. ☐
26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership. ☐
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work. ☐
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure. ☐
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves. ☐
30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions. ☐

Appendix C: “LPI observer”

LPI OBSERVER

Leadership Practices Inventory

by JAMES M. KOUZES
& BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS

You are being asked by the person whose name appears at the top of the next page to assess his or her leadership behaviours. Below the person's name you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviours. Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE on the right, ask yourself:

"How frequently does this person engage in the behaviour described?"

When selecting your response to each statement:

- Be realistic about the extent to which this person *actually* engages in the behaviour.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- Do NOT answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave.
- DO answer in terms of how this person typically behaves on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving this person 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of his or her behaviour. Similarly, giving someone all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply, it's probably because you don't see or experience the behaviour. That means this person does not frequently engage in the behaviour, at least around you. In that case, assign a rating 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the square to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement *must* have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

1	= Almost Never
2	= Rarely
3	= Seldom
4	= Once in a While
5	= Occasionally
6	= Sometimes
7	= Fairly often
8	= Usually
9	= Very Frequently
10	= Almost Always

Name of Leader: _____

I (the observer) am This Leader's (Check one): ☐ Manager ☐ Direct Report ☐ Co-Worker ☐ Other

To what extent does this leader typically engage in the following behaviours? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

He or She:

1. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others. ☐
2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. ☐
3. Seeks out challenging opportunities that tests his/her own skills and abilities. ☐
4. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with. ☐
5. Praises people for a job well done. ☐
6. Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on. ☐
7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like. ☐
8. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. ☐
9. Actively listens to diverse points of view. ☐
10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities. ☐
11. Follows through on promises and commitments he/she makes. ☐
12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future. ☐
13. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organisation for innovative ways to improve what we do. ☐
14. Treats others with dignity and respect. ☐
15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects. ☐
16. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance. ☐
17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realised by enlisting in a common vision. ☐
18. Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected. ☐
19. Supports the decisions that people make on their own. ☐

20. Publicly recognises people who exemplify commitment to shared values. ☐
21. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organisation. ☐
22. Paints the “big picture” of what we aspire to accomplish. ☐
23. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on. ☐
24. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work. ☐
25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments. ☐
26. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership. ☐
27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work. ☐
28. Experiments and takes risks, even when there is a chance of failure. ☐
29. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves. ☐
30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions. ☐

Appendix D: Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) invitation letter

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) invitation letter: the College

(Campus name)

Dear *(Principal's name)*,

As you may know, you have been selected to participate in a Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) research survey. As part of the survey, you, and several people who have directly observed you in a leadership role, will be asked to complete an LPI questionnaire. This questionnaire has been used in leadership assessment and development programmes for more than 20 years. The LPI, which was developed by Jim Kouzes and Barry Posner, will be used to produce a 360-degree feedback report that will be used to assess your leadership behaviours. It does not measure your IQ, personality, style and/or general management skills.

There are two types of LPI questionnaires; an "LPI self" form and an "LPI observer" form. You will be given a "LPI self" form to complete. The "LPI observer" form will be distributed to a group of eight other people who work with you. They are the people who observe you directly in your leadership role. This group includes your manager, people who report directly to you, co-workers and others who have directly observed your leadership behaviours, such as vice-principals, HoDs, lecturers and administrative staff.

Your name will appear on the "LPI observer" form in the space marked "leader", at the top of the LPI questionnaire page. The observer's relationship to you will be indicated as: "manager", "direct report", "co-worker" or "other". It is the individual's relationship to *you* that is key. For example, "manager" will be selected only for someone who is your line manager. "Direct report" will be selected only for people who report to you.

To protect your observers' anonymity, their names WILL NOT appear on their response sheets. Furthermore, you will know the observer category from which the feedback comes. However, feedback will be elicited from at least two or three people in each category, except your manager. If only one form marked "direct report" is received, for example, that individual's feedback will be grouped with "other observers" in order to protect his or her anonymity.

You need to assure your observers that their responses will be completely confidential. In addition, you should inform them of the following:

- They are participating in a leadership assessment research survey and would appreciate their feedback on your leadership behaviours.
- Their responses will be completely confidential.
- For the process to work properly, they must respond to each item on the form and fill in every space on the form.
- They should not write their names on the questionnaire – the scores are calculated by category.
- The completed questionnaires must be submitted ***no later than 28/02/2010*.**

You need to complete the "LPI self" questionnaire. Ensure that you fill in every space. Please complete and submit the questionnaire ***no later than 28/02/2010*.**

I trust you will find the LPI both an interesting and valuable process. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Riaan Dirkse van Schalkwyk

Appendix E: Campus 1 – the five practices data summary

Profile for Campus 1
Private Higher Education Provider
February 10, 2011

The Five Practices Data Summary

This page summarizes your LPI scores for each Practice. The Self column shows the total of your own responses to the six statements about each Practice. The AVG column shows the averages of all your Observers' ratings. The Individual Observers columns show the total of each Observer's rating. Scores can range from 6 to 60.

M Manager D Direct Report C Co-Worker O Other
AVG Average of all LPI Observer Ratings

	Self	AVG	Individual Observers							
			M	D1	D2	C1	C2	O1	O2	O3
Model the Way	60	47.1	45	43	30	54	52	51	54	48
Inspire a Shared Vision	60	51.5	48	52	38	58	51	59	53	53
Challenge the Process	59	47.2	39	52	28	53	50	57	53	46
Enable Others to Act	58	46.0	36	50	41	48	43	53	53	44
Encourage the Heart	60	47.4	41	53	28	50	50	56	56	45

Appendix F: Campus 2 – the five practices data summary

LPI

Leadership Practices Inventory

Profile for Campus 2
Private Higher Education Provider
February 10, 2011

The Five Practices Data Summary

This page summarizes your LPI scores for each Practice. The Self column shows the total of your own responses to the six statements about each Practice. The AVG column shows the averages of all your Observers' ratings. The Individual Observers columns show the total of each Observer's rating. Scores can range from 6 to 60.

M Manager D Direct Report C Co-Worker O Other
AVG Average of all LPI Observer Ratings

	Self	AVG	Individual Observers							
			M	D1	D2	C1	C2	O1	O2	O3
Model the Way	53	47.2	36	49	47	52	51	53	44	46
Inspire a Shared Vision	47	46.6	34	46	51	50	49	56	44	43
Challenge the Process	53	45.8	38	52	47	49	51	52	37	40
Enable Others to Act	55	46.6	40	47	52	47	46	57	35	49
Encourage the Heart	57	50.0	40	51	47	53	53	59	45	52

1

Appendix G: Campus 3 – the five practices data summary

Profile for Campus 3
Private Higher Education Provider
February 10, 2011

The Five Practices Data Summary

This page summarizes your LPI scores for each Practice. The Self column shows the total of your own responses to the six statements about each Practice. The AVG column shows the averages of all your Observers' ratings. The Individual Observers columns show the total of each Observer's rating. Scores can range from 6 to 60.

M Manager D Direct Report C Co-Worker O Other
AVG Average of all LPI Observer Ratings

	Self	AVG	Individual Observers							
			M	D1	D2	C1	C2	O1	O2	O3
Model the Way	51	43.2	30	39	43	35	48	48	60	43
Inspire a Shared Vision	53	39.5	26	31	37	29	48	45	58	42
Challenge the Process	51	44.5	39	39	43	32	48	51	56	48
Enable Others to Act	55	48.9	36	50	49	39	48	58	60	51
Encourage the Heart	54	45.5	39	37	47	42	48	49	52	50

Appendix H: Campus 4 – the five practices data summary

Profile for Campus 4
Private Higher Education Provider
February 10, 2011

The Five Practices Data Summary

This page summarizes your LPI scores for each Practice. The Self column shows the total of your own responses to the six statements about each Practice. The AVG column shows the averages of all your Observers' ratings. The Individual Observers columns show the total of each Observer's rating. Scores can range from 6 to 60.

M Manager D Direct Report C Co-Worker O Other
AVG Average of all LPI Observer Ratings

	Self	AVG	Individual Observers							
			M	D1	D2	C1	C2	O1	O2	O3
Model the Way	45	39.4	39	52	18	31	48	53	46	28
Inspire a Shared Vision	37	41.4	46	52	16	36	45	56	40	40
Challenge the Process	39	38.9	33	50	16	31	45	55	46	35
Enable Others to Act	45	35.2	35	50	21	28	48	46	31	23
Encourage the Heart	34	37.5	35	47	22	34	48	52	34	28

Appendix I: Campus 5 – the five practices data summary

Profile for Campus 5
Private Higher Education Provider
February 10, 2011

The Five Practices Data Summary

This page summarizes your LPI scores for each Practice. The Self column shows the total of your own responses to the six statements about each Practice. The AVG column shows the averages of all your Observers' ratings. The Individual Observers columns show the total of each Observer's rating. Scores can range from 6 to 60.

M Manager D Direct Report C Co-Worker O Other
AVG Average of all LPI Observer Ratings

	Self	AVG	Individual Observers							
			M	D1	D2	C1	C2	O1	O2	O3
Model the Way	53	36.6	34	37	38	41	45	37	33	28
Inspire a Shared Vision	48	36.0	31	32	33	48	46	36	42	20
Challenge the Process	47	33.2	34	39	41	42	48	27	25	10
Enable Others to Act	49	31.5	31	28	35	45	45	26	28	14
Encourage the Heart	53	29.9	43	19	25	46	46	29	24	7

Appendix J: Programme enrolled for and year of study

Programme enrolled for and year of study

	Campus 1	Campus 2	Campus 3	Campus 4	Campus 5	Total
Computer Technical Support	0 .0%	1 .4%	0 .0%	0 .0%	4 3.3%	5 .5%
Construction and Engineering Drafting	0 .0%	17 6.2%	0 .0%	6 4.1%	8 6.7%	31 3.2%
Secretarial Studies	6 5.8%	0 .0%	10 3.0%	12 8.2%	0 .0%	28 2.9%
Office and Computing Studies	0 .0%	23 8.4%	14 4.2%	9 6.2%	8 6.7%	54 5.5%
Accounting and Financial Computing 1st year	7 6.7%	1 .4%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	8 .8%
Accounting and Financial Computing 2nd year	10 9.6%	28 10.2%	25 7.5%	0 .0%	1 .8%	64 6.6%
Advertising Management 1st year	0 .0%	0 .0%	2 .6%	0 .0%	0 .0%	2 .2%
Advertising Management 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Business Information Technology 1st year	0 .0%	1 .4%	1 .3%	0 .0%	8 6.7%	10 1.0%
Business Information Technology 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	7 5.8%	7 .7%
Business Management 1st year	17 16.3%	40 14.6%	115 34.5%	82 56.2%	48 40.0%	302 30.9%
Business Management 2nd year	4 3.8%	1 .4%	4 1.2%	0 .0%	0 .0%	9 .9%
Graphic Design and Web Development 1st year	16 15.4%	0 .0%	23 6.9%	7 4.8%	5 4.2%	51 5.2%
Graphic Design and Web Development 2nd year	3 2.9%	0 .0%	11 3.3%	0 .0%	5 4.2%	19 1.9%

Internet Engineering 1st year	1 1.0%	27 9.9%	36 10.8%	18 12.3%	8 6.7%	90 9.2%
Internet Engineering 2nd year	4 3.8%	31 11.3%	1 .3%	0 .0%	5 4.2%	41 4.2%
Journalism 1st year	7 6.7%	50 18.2%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	57 5.8%
Journalism 2nd year	2 1.9%	2 .7%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	4 .4%
Programming 1st year	12 11.5%	8 2.9%	28 8.4%	0 .0%	5 4.2%	53 5.4%
Programming 2nd year	7 6.7%	18 6.6%	16 4.8%	12 8.2%	2 1.7%	55 5.6%
Sport Management 1st year	0 .0%	0 .0%	24 7.2%	0 .0%	6 5.0%	30 3.1%
Sport Management 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Tourism and Tour Operations 1st year	2 1.9%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	2 .2%
Tourism and Tour Operations 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Hotel Management 1st year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Hotel Management 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Beauty Therapy 1st year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Beauty Therapy 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Public Relations 1st year	0 .0%	26 9.5%	23 6.9%	0 .0%	0 .0%	49 5.0%

Public Relations 2nd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Public Relations 3rd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Marketing Management 1st year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Marketing Management 2nd year	6 5.8%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	6 .6%
Marketing Management 3rd year	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
Total	104 100.0%	274 100.0%	333 100.0%	146 100.0%	120 100.0%	977 100.0%

Appendix K: Service quality expectation

Service quality expectation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Tangibles								
E_TAN1 The College has up-to-date equipment	193 19.6%	112 11.4%	154 15.7%	199 20.2%	164 16.7%	63 6.4%	98 10.0%	983
E_TAN2 The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	203 20.7%	177 18.1%	164 16.8%	159 16.2%	118 12.1%	80 8.2%	78 8.0%	979
E_TAN3 The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	82 8.4%	87 8.9%	115 11.8%	152 15.6%	157 16.1%	181 18.6%	201 20.6%	975
E_TAN4 The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	152 15.6%	100 10.3%	117 12.0%	161 16.5%	162 16.6%	125 12.8%	156 16.0%	973
Reliability								
E_REL5 When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	303 31.3%	132 13.7%	127 13.1%	121 12.5%	112 11.6%	70 7.2%	102 10.5%	967
E_REL6 When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	186 19.2%	128 13.2%	148 15.2%	186 19.2%	139 14.3%	90 9.3%	94 9.7%	971
E_REL7 The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	208 21.5%	137 14.1%	158 16.3%	163 16.8%	143 14.8%	83 8.6%	77 7.9%	969
E_REL8 The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	257 26.5%	148 15.3%	126 13.0%	158 16.3%	114 11.8%	70 7.2%	97 10.0%	970
E_REL9 The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	157 16.1%	73 7.5%	108 11.0%	128 13.1%	142 14.5%	128 13.1%	242 24.7%	978
Responsiveness								
E_RES10 The College tells students when services will be rendered	120 12.4%	81 8.4%	125 12.9%	148 15.3%	151 15.6%	137 14.2%	204 21.1%	966
E_RES11 Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	201 20.7%	140 14.4%	152 15.7%	166 17.1%	127 13.1%	89 9.2%	95 9.8%	970
E_RES12 Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	79 8.2%	54 5.6%	90 9.3%	134 13.9%	177 18.4%	188 19.5%	241 25.0%	963

E_RES13 The College personnel are not too busy to respond to students' requests promptly	177 18.2%	142 14.6%	160 16.4%	162 16.6%	154 15.8%	90 9.2%	89 9.1%	974
Assurance								
E_ASS14 Students can trust the College personnel	169 17.4%	106 10.9%	136 14.0%	172 17.7%	158 16.3%	112 11.5%	118 12.2%	971
E_ASS15 The College personnel inspire confidence	119 12.3%	124 12.8%	166 17.1%	194 20.0%	148 15.3%	114 11.8%	103 10.6%	968
E_ASS16 The College personnel are polite	138 14.2%	112 11.5%	142 14.6%	194 20.0%	161 16.6%	104 10.7%	119 12.3%	970
E_ASS17 Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	122 12.6%	130 13.4%	155 16.0%	214 22.1%	166 17.2%	93 9.6%	87 9.0%	967
Empathy								
E_EMP18 Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	169 17.4%	138 14.2%	138 14.2%	157 16.2%	147 15.2%	101 10.4%	119 12.3%	969
E_EMP19 Lecturers give students individualised attention	127 13.1%	93 9.6%	115 11.9%	168 17.4%	163 16.9%	156 16.1%	145 15.0%	967
E_EMP20 The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	190 19.7%	128 13.3%	132 13.7%	170 17.6%	160 16.6%	99 10.3%	85 8.8%	964
E_EMP21 The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	177 18.4%	130 13.5%	163 16.9%	182 18.9%	149 15.5%	86 8.9%	77 8.0%	964
E_EMP22 The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	149 15.3%	108 11.1%	138 14.2%	145 14.9%	126 12.9%	131 13.4%	178 18.3%	975

Appendix L: Service quality perception

Service quality perception

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Tangibles								
P_TAN1 The College has up-to-date equipment	216	125	127	160	126	76	100	930
	23.2%	13.4%	13.7%	17.2%	13.5%	8.2%	10.8%	
P_TAN2 The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	186	145	168	157	101	76	74	907
	20.5%	16.0%	18.5%	17.3%	11.1%	8.4%	8.2%	
P_TAN3 The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	121	86	119	128	154	112	167	887
	13.6%	9.7%	13.4%	14.4%	17.4%	12.6%	18.8%	
P_TAN4 The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	145	110	129	145	149	89	108	875
	16.6%	12.6%	14.7%	16.6%	17.0%	10.2%	12.3%	
Reliability								
P_REL5 When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	217	112	131	135	123	76	75	869
	25.0%	12.9%	15.1%	15.5%	14.2%	8.7%	8.6%	
P_REL6 When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	174	131	125	168	109	87	72	866
	20.1%	15.1%	14.4%	19.4%	12.6%	10.0%	8.3%	
P_REL7 The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	178	138	141	144	121	70	78	870
	20.5%	15.9%	16.2%	16.6%	13.9%	8.0%	9.0%	
P_REL8 The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	213	139	121	143	100	58	90	864
	24.7%	16.1%	14.0%	16.6%	11.6%	6.7%	10.4%	
P_REL9 The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	136	87	127	131	103	105	181	870
	15.6%	10.0%	14.6%	15.1%	11.8%	12.1%	20.8%	
Responsiveness								
P_RES10 The College tells students when services will be rendered	150	119	120	138	118	101	128	874
	17.2%	13.6%	13.7%	15.8%	13.5%	11.6%	14.6%	
P_RES11 Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	173	122	153	155	119	69	75	866
	20.0%	14.1%	17.7%	17.9%	13.7%	8.0%	8.7%	
P_RES12 Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	106	92	115	132	140	119	167	871
	12.2%	10.6%	13.2%	15.2%	16.1%	13.7%	19.2%	

P_RES13 The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	165 18.9%	120 13.7%	133 15.2%	162 18.5%	143 16.4%	77 8.8%	74 8.5%	874
Assurance								
P_ASS14 Students can trust the College personnel	164 18.9%	113 13.0%	137 15.8%	158 18.2%	120 13.9%	87 10.0%	87 10.0%	866
P_ASS15 The College personnel inspire confidence	132 15.2%	114 13.1%	141 16.2%	178 20.4%	113 13.0%	102 11.7%	91 10.4%	871
P_ASS16 The College personnel are polite	141 16.2%	117 13.4%	138 15.8%	168 19.3%	119 13.7%	94 10.8%	94 10.8%	871
P_ASS17 Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the performance of their services	131 15.0%	127 14.5%	147 16.8%	173 19.7%	139 15.9%	78 8.9%	81 9.2%	876
Empathy								
P_EMP18 Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	164 18.6%	115 13.1%	148 16.8%	145 16.5%	112 12.7%	102 11.6%	94 10.7%	880
P_EMP19 Lecturers give students individualised attention	133 15.4%	85 9.8%	110 12.7%	161 18.6%	120 13.9%	127 14.7%	129 14.9%	865
P_EMP20 The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	173 19.7%	117 13.3%	133 15.1%	133 15.1%	130 14.8%	99 11.3%	94 10.7%	879
P_EMP21 The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	180 20.6%	112 12.8%	137 15.7%	156 17.8%	116 13.3%	81 9.3%	93 10.6%	875
P_EMP22 The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or contact by phone, email, etc.)	153 17.1%	111 12.4%	132 14.8%	141 15.8%	106 11.9%	109 12.2%	141 15.8%	893

Appendix M: Gap analysis of all campuses across all dimensions

Gap analysis of all campuses across all dimensions

PROC MEANS variables						
OVERALL	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	929	**-0.1011**	930	**3.5194**	983	**3.6205**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	904	**0.0317**	907	**3.4035**	979	**3.3718**
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	881	**-0.3484**	887	**4.2537**	975	**4.6021**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	868	**-0.2620**	875	**3.8480**	973	**4.1100**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	859	**0.1850**	869	**3.4177**	967	**3.2327**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	856	**-0.1016**	866	**3.5266**	971	**3.6282**
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	862	**0.0084**	870	**3.4759**	969	**3.4675**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	858	**0.0291**	864	**3.3611**	970	**3.3320**
9. The College keeps accurate records accurately (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	867	**-0.2390**	870	**4.1690**	978	**4.4080**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	864	**-0.5227**	874	**3.8810**	966	**4.4037**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	859	**-0.0424**	866	**3.4988**	970	**3.5412**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	862	**-0.5725**	871	**4.3008**	963	**4.8733**
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	869	**-0.0153**	874	**3.6007**	974	**3.6160**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	859	**-0.2238**	866	**3.6536**	971	**3.8774**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	860	**-0.1121**	871	**3.7991**	968	**3.9112**
16. The College personnel are polite	862	**-0.1808**	871	**3.7635**	970	**3.9443**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the performance of their services	866	**-0.1185**	876	**3.7078**	967	**3.8263**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	872	**-0.0872**	880	**3.6909**	969	**3.7781**
19. Lecturers gives students individualised attention	856	**-0.1410**	865	**4.0948**	967	**4.2358**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	864	**0.0439**	879	**3.6860**	964	**3.6421**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interest sat heart	862	**0.0239**	875	**3.6069**	964	**3.5830**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	884	**-0.1980**	893	**3.9261**	975	**4.1241**

Appendix N: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 1

Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 1

PROC MEANS variables						
CAMPUS 1	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	96	**0.0184**	96	**3.2396**	104	**3.2212**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	93	**0.0951**	93	**3.1720**	104	**3.0769**
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	91	**-0.3915**	92	**4.1522**	103	**4.5437**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	89	**-0.3290**	89	**3.8652**	103	**4.1942**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	90	**0.4340**	90	**3.3667**	104	**2.9327**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	88	**-0.1556**	88	**3.7386**	104	**3.8942**
7. The College is always dependable and renders the service right the first time	88	**0.0127**	88	**3.4205**	103	**3.4078**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	89	**0.0742**	89	**3.3146**	104	**3.2404**
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	88	**-0.2517**	88	**4.1136**	104	**4.3654**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	91	**-0.2610**	91	**3.8352**	104	**4.0962**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	88	**0.2073**	88	**3.5568**	103	**3.3495**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	89	**-0.6005**	89	**4.1348**	102	**4.7353**
13. Personnel of the College are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	90	**0.4658**	90	**3.8889**	104	**3.4231**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	91	**-0.1084**	91	**3.7363**	103	**3.8447**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	89	**0.0738**	89	**4.0449**	104	**3.9712**
16. The College personnel are polite	91	**-0.0014**	91	**4.1429**	104	**4.1442**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	88	**0.0400**	89	**3.7753**	102	**3.7353**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	91	**-0.0884**	91	**3.8242**	103	**3.9126**
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	89	**-0.0686**	89	**4.1910**	104	**4.2596**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	90	**0.1349**	91	**3.8242**	103	**3.6893**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	89	**0.1486**	89	**3.6966**	104	**3.5481**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	92	**-0.0322**	92	**4.3043**	104	**4.3365**
SQI		**-0.03**				

Appendix O: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 2

Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 2

PROC MEANS variables						
CAMPUS 2	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	260	**-0.1116**	260	**3.2615**	276	**3.3732**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	252	**0.1399**	252	**3.2381**	275	**3.0982**
3. Personnel at the College are well dressed and neat at all times	248	**-0.3016**	248	**4.2984**	275	**4.6000**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	247	**-0.3157**	248	**3.6734**	274	**3.9891**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	240	**0.2724**	243	**3.3169**	270	**3.0444**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	243	**0.0606**	244	**3.4672**	273	**3.4066**
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	241	**0.0868**	244	**3.3893**	271	**3.3026**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	245	**0.0829**	245	**3.2367**	273	**3.1538**
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	245	**-0.2507**	245	**4.3020**	275	**4.5527**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	243	**-0.5967**	244	**3.9344**	273	**4.5311**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	245	**-0.0292**	246	**3.5569**	273	**3.5861**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	239	**-0.6336**	240	**4.4708**	268	**5.1045**
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	248	**-0.0531**	248	**3.5000**	273	**3.5531**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	245	**-0.2971**	245	**3.6000**	272	**3.8971**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	243	**-0.1905**	245	**3.7429**	270	**3.9333**
16. The College personnel are polite	246	**-0.1437**	246	**3.6951**	273	**3.8388**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	245	**-0.1439**	247	**3.7085**	271	**3.8524**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	249	**-0.0511**	250	**3.7320**	272	**3.7831**
19. Lecturers gives students individualised attention	244	**-0.1756**	245	**4.2082**	271	**4.3838**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	248	**0.0861**	250	**3.7120**	270	**3.6259**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	246	**0.0442**	250	**3.5920**	272	**3.5478**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	248	**-0.0908**	251	**3.9641**	273	**4.0549**
SQI		**-0.12**				

Appendix P: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 3

Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 3

PROC MEANS variables						
CAMPUS 3	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	323	**-0.1360**	324	**3.5864**	335	**3.7224**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	314	**0.0277**	317	**3.5773**	333	**3.5495**
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	307	**-0.4123**	310	**4.3581**	331	**4.7704**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	302	**-0.2316**	306	**3.9739**	331	**4.2054**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	304	**0.1909**	307	**3.2997**	331	**3.1088**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	304	**0.0182**	309	**3.4563**	331	**3.4381**
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	307	**0.0467**	310	**3.4323**	332	**3.3855**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	307	**0.1810**	310	**3.3290**	331	**3.1480**
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	307	**-0.1935**	310	**4.1710**	332	**4.3645**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	307	**-0.4973**	310	**3.9452**	330	**4.4424**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	305	**0.0138**	311	**3.3087**	329	**3.2948**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	307	**-0.6031**	313	**4.3450**	328	**4.9482**
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	306	**-0.0677**	310	**3.5323**	330	**3.6000**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	301	**-0.2225**	306	**3.6078**	330	**3.8303**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	304	**-0.0163**	311	**3.8617**	328	**3.8780**
16. The College personnel are polite	303	**-0.2292**	309	**3.7282**	328	**3.9573**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	305	**-0.0769**	310	**3.7097**	328	**3.7866**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	304	**-0.0777**	309	**3.6052**	328	**3.6829**
19. Lecturers gives students individualised attention	303	**-0.1306**	308	**4.0584**	328	**4.1890**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	303	**0.0496**	311	**3.5756**	327	**3.5260**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	303	**0.0024**	310	**3.4871**	326	**3.4847**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	312	**-0.2293**	317	**3.8644**	331	**4.0937**
SQI		**-0.11**				

Appendix Q: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 4

Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 4

PROC MEANS variables						
CAMPUS 4	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	142	**-0.0484**	142	**3.9718**	148	**4.0203**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	140	**-0.0876**	140	**3.6286**	148	**3.7162**
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	136	**-0.2982**	137	**4.1168**	147	**4.4150**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	131	**-0.4212**	132	**3.9394**	147	**4.3605**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	127	**-0.0379**	129	**3.9070**	145	**3.9448**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	126	**-0.5451**	129	**3.7674**	144	**4.3125**
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	129	**-0.1089**	131	**3.8702**	144	**3.9792**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	124	**-0.3056**	126	**3.7778**	144	**4.0833**
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	130	**-0.1741**	130	**4.2000**	147	**4.3741**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	124	**-0.5983**	130	**3.8769**	141	**4.4752**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	126	**-0.3184**	126	**3.8254**	146	**4.1438**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	129	**-0.0947**	130	**4.3231**	146	**4.4178**
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond to students' requests promptly	128	**-0.0873**	129	**3.9535**	147	**4.0408**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	124	**-0.1669**	126	**4.0317**	146	**4.1986**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	128	**-0.2797**	130	**3.8231**	146	**4.1027**
16. The College personnel are polite	125	**-0.3738**	128	**3.9297**	145	**4.3034**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	130	**-0.1569**	132	**3.8636**	146	**4.0205**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	129	**-0.0890**	131	**4.0000**	146	**4.0890**
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	125	**-0.0217**	128	**4.2422**	144	**4.2639**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	124	**-0.2283**	128	**3.9453**	144	**4.1736**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	129	**-0.0542**	131	**4.0153**	144	**4.0694**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or contact by phone, email, etc.)	133	**-0.1604**	134	**4.1866**	147	**4.3469**
SQI		**-0.21**				

Appendix R: Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 5

Gap analysis of all dimensions across Campus 5

PROC MEANS variables						
CAMPUS 5	**Q* =**		**P* –**		**E***	
	Valid N	**Gap score**	**Valid N**	**Mean**	**Valid N**	**Mean**
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	108	**-0.1657**	108	**3.5926**	120	**3.7583**
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	105	**-0.1552**	105	**3.1810**	119	**3.3361**
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	99	**-0.3202**	100	**4.1000**	119	**4.4202**
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	99	**0.0227**	100	**3.7600**	118	**3.7373**
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	98	**0.0383**	100	**3.4400**	117	**3.4017**
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	95	**-0.2196**	96	**3.3854**	119	**3.6050**
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	97	**-0.1537**	97	**3.3505**	119	**3.5042**
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	93	**-0.1471**	94	**3.2766**	118	**3.4237**
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	97	**-0.4399**	97	**3.8351**	120	**4.2750**
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	99	**-0.5905**	99	**3.5960**	118	**4.1864**
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	95	**-0.0620**	95	**3.4842**	119	**3.5462**
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	98	**-0.9548**	99	**3.8687**	119	**4.8235**
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	97	**-0.1098**	97	**3.3402**	120	**3.4500**
14. Students can trust the College personnel	98	**-0.2327**	98	**3.3673**	120	**3.6000**
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	96	**-0.1875**	96	**3.4792**	120	**3.6667**
16. The College personnel are polite	97	**-0.0674**	97	**3.4742**	120	**3.5417**
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	98	**-0.2881**	98	**3.4286**	120	**3.7167**
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	99	**-0.2101**	99	**3.3232**	120	**3.5333**
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	95	**-0.3434**	95	**3.6316**	120	**3.9750**
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	99	**0.1884**	99	**3.5051**	120	**3.3167**
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	95	**0.0166**	95	**3.3895**	118	**3.3729**
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or contact by phone, email, etc.)	99	**-0.5851**	99	**3.3232**	120	**3.9083**
SQI		**-0.23**				

Appendix S: Mean and standard deviation

Mean and standard deviation

Mean and standard deviation – all campuses

Overall	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	930	3.5194	1.9920	983	3.6205	1.8867
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	907	3.4035	1.8706	979	3.3718	1.8789
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	887	4.2537	2.0157	975	4.6021	1.9058
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	875	3.8480	1.9522	973	4.1100	2.0131
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	869	3.4177	1.9614	967	3.2327	2.0659
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	866	3.5266	1.9010	971	3.6282	1.9117
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	870	3.4759	1.9066	969	3.4675	1.8937
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	864	3.3611	1.9800	970	3.3320	1.9972
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	870	4.1690	2.0983	978	4.4080	2.1419
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	874	3.8810	2.0328	966	4.4037	2.0120
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	866	3.4988	1.8779	970	3.5412	1.9421
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	871	4.3008	1.9992	963	4.8733	1.8746
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	874	3.6007	1.8770	974	3.6160	1.8945
14. Students can trust the College personnel	866	3.6536	1.9270	971	3.8774	1.9621
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	871	3.7991	1.8846	968	3.9112	1.8351
16. The College personnel are polite	871	3.7635	1.9080	970	3.9443	1.8943
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	876	3.7078	1.8328	967	3.8263	1.7812
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	880	3.6909	1.9569	969	3.7781	1.9775
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	865	4.0948	1.9919	967	4.2358	1.9487
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	879	3.6860	1.9804	964	3.6421	1.9204
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	875	3.6069	1.9568	964	3.5830	1.8496
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	893	3.9261	2.0529	975	4.1241	2.0637

Mean and standard deviation – Campus 1

Campus 1	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	96	3.2396	1.8680	104	3.2212	1.7346
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	93	3.1720	1.7422	104	3.0769	1.7275
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	92	4.1522	1.8092	103	4.5437	1.7137
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	89	3.8652	1.9081	103	4.1942	1.9954
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	90	3.3667	1.8870	104	2.9327	1.9522
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	88	3.7386	1.9797	104	3.8942	1.8743
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	88	3.4205	1.9222	103	3.4078	1.8705
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	89	3.3146	1.8925	104	3.2404	1.9583
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	88	4.1136	2.0978	104	4.3654	2.1991
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	91	3.8352	2.0070	104	4.0962	2.0740
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	88	3.5568	1.9408	103	3.3495	1.8928
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	89	4.1348	1.8961	102	4.7353	1.8928
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	90	3.8889	1.8750	104	3.4231	1.7774
14. Students can trust the College personnel	91	3.7363	1.9370	103	3.8447	1.7974
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	89	4.0449	2.0052	104	3.9712	1.8458
16. The College personnel are polite	91	4.1429	1.8109	104	4.1442	1.8297
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	89	3.7753	1.8571	102	3.7353	1.7796
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	91	3.8242	2.0741	103	3.9126	1.9759
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	89	4.1910	1.9822	104	4.2596	1.9608
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	91	3.8242	1.9641	103	3.6893	1.8944
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	89	3.6966	2.0416	104	3.5481	1.8998
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	92	4.3043	2.0952	104	4.3365	1.9835

Mean and standard deviation – Campus 2

Campus 2	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	260	3.2615	1.9944	276	3.3732	1.9377
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	252	3.2381	1.9370	275	3.0982	1.8721
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	248	4.2984	2.1179	275	4.6000	1.9817
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	248	3.6734	2.0046	274	3.9891	2.0816
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	243	3.3169	2.0027	270	3.0444	2.0363
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	244	3.4672	1.8951	273	3.4066	1.8189
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	244	3.3893	1.9980	271	3.3026	1.9410
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	245	3.2367	2.0529	273	3.1538	2.0069
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	245	4.3020	2.1421	275	4.5527	2.1512
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	244	3.9344	2.1592	273	4.5311	2.1126
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	246	3.5569	1.9280	273	3.5861	2.0167
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	240	4.4708	2.0958	268	5.1045	1.7770
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	248	3.5000	1.9425	273	3.5531	1.9054
14. Students can trust the College personnel	245	3.6000	1.9885	272	3.8971	2.0538
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	245	3.7429	1.9426	270	3.9333	1.8958
16. The College personnel are polite	246	3.6951	1.9817	273	3.8388	1.9637
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	247	3.7085	1.9180	271	3.8524	1.8540
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	250	3.7320	2.0952	272	3.7831	2.0744
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	245	4.2082	2.0389	271	4.3838	1.9964
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	250	3.7120	2.0113	270	3.6259	2.0011
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	250	3.5920	1.9822	272	3.5478	1.8835
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	251	3.9641	2.1510	273	4.0549	2.1301

Mean and standard deviation – Campus 3

Campus 3	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	324	3.5864	2.0281	335	3.7224	1.8853
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	317	3.5773	1.9055	333	3.5495	1.8983
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	310	4.3581	2.0803	331	4.7704	1.9730
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	306	3.9739	1.9850	331	4.2054	2.0136
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	307	3.2997	1.9922	331	3.1088	2.0933
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	309	3.4563	1.8955	331	3.4381	1.9598
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	310	3.4323	1.9073	332	3.3855	1.8806
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	310	3.3290	2.0293	331	3.1480	1.9800
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	310	4.1710	2.1647	332	4.3645	2.1882
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	310	3.9452	2.0591	330	4.4424	2.0267
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	311	3.3087	1.8720	329	3.2948	1.8383
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	313	4.3450	1.9650	328	4.9482	1.7766
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	310	3.5323	1.8584	330	3.6000	1.8884
14. Students can trust the College personnel	306	3.6078	1.8947	330	3.8303	1.9449
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	311	3.8617	1.8983	328	3.8780	1.8250
16. The College personnel are polite	309	3.7282	1.9383	328	3.9573	1.9358
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	310	3.7097	1.8485	328	3.7866	1.7566
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	309	3.6052	1.9187	328	3.6829	1.9528
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	308	4.0584	2.0331	328	4.1890	1.9694
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	311	3.5756	1.9903	327	3.5260	1.8892
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	310	3.4871	1.9702	326	3.4847	1.8443
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	317	3.8644	2.0339	331	4.0937	2.0759

Mean and standard deviation – Campus 4

Campus 4	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	142	3.9718	1.9640	148	4.0203	1.9324
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	140	3.6286	1.7886	148	3.7162	1.9415
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	137	4.1168	1.8789	147	4.4150	1.8126
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	132	3.9394	1.8441	147	4.3605	1.9123
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	129	3.9070	1.9782	145	3.9448	2.1531
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	129	3.7674	1.8978	144	4.3125	1.8754
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	131	3.8702	1.8663	144	3.9792	1.8976
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	126	3.7778	1.8714	144	4.0833	2.0364
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	130	4.2000	1.9585	147	4.3741	2.0681
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	130	3.8769	1.9290	141	4.4752	1.8616
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	126	3.8254	1.8334	146	4.1438	1.9722
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	130	4.3231	2.0468	146	4.4178	2.1391
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	129	3.9535	1.8577	147	4.0408	1.9299
14. Students can trust the College personnel	126	4.0317	1.8673	146	4.1986	2.0329
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	130	3.8231	1.8021	146	4.1027	1.7955
16. The College personnel are polite	128	3.9297	1.8366	145	4.3034	1.7374
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	132	3.8636	1.7066	146	4.0205	1.7674
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	131	4.0000	1.8688	146	4.0890	1.8861
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	128	4.2422	1.9592	144	4.2639	1.9105
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	128	3.9453	1.9933	144	4.1736	1.9588
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	131	4.0153	1.9255	144	4.0694	1.8346
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	134	4.1866	2.0119	147	4.3469	1.9361

Mean and standard deviation – Campus 5

Campus 5	Perceptions			Expectations		
	Valid N	Mean	SD	Valid N	Mean	SD
1. The College has up-to-date equipment	108	3.5926	1.9240	120	3.7583	1.7247
2. The College's physical facilities (e.g. buildings and furniture) are attractive, visually appealing and stylish	105	3.1810	1.7639	119	3.3361	1.7864
3. The College personnel are well dressed and neat at all times	100	4.1000	1.9254	119	4.4202	1.7921
4. The materials of the College (e.g. pamphlets and study material) suit the image of the College	100	3.7600	1.8969	118	3.7373	1.9499
5. When the College promises to do something by a certain time, it does so	100	3.4400	1.7368	117	3.4017	1.8572
6. When students have problems, the College personnel are sympathetic and reassuring	96	3.3854	1.8602	119	3.6050	1.8696
7. The College is always dependable and provides the service right the first time	97	3.3505	1.6648	119	3.5042	1.7557
8. The College provides services at the time it promises to do so	94	3.2766	1.8044	118	3.4237	1.8136
9. The College keeps accurate records (e.g. accounts, academic reports, etc.)	97	3.8351	1.9509	120	4.2750	2.0455
10. The College tells students when services will be rendered	99	3.5960	1.7838	118	4.1864	1.8302
11. Students receive fast (prompt) service delivery from the College personnel	95	3.4842	1.7251	119	3.5462	1.9167
12. Lecturers at the College are willing to assist students	99	3.8687	1.8552	119	4.8235	1.9118
13. The College personnel are not too busy to respond promptly to students' requests	97	3.3402	1.7314	120	3.4500	1.8958
14. Students can trust the College personnel	98	3.3673	1.9016	120	3.6000	1.8168
15. The College personnel inspire confidence	96	3.4792	1.6606	120	3.6667	1.7601
16. The College personnel are polite	97	3.4742	1.7624	120	3.5417	1.7818
17. Personnel receive adequate support from the College management to improve the provision of their services	98	3.4286	1.7051	120	3.7167	1.7061
18. Students receive individualised attention from administrative personnel (e.g. doing something extra for students)	99	3.3232	1.6526	120	3.5333	1.9050
19. Lecturers give students individualised attention	95	3.6316	1.7385	120	3.9750	1.8125
20. The College personnel do know what the needs of the students are (e.g. recognising students as customers)	99	3.5051	1.8592	120	3.3167	1.6852
21. The College personnel have the students' best interests at heart	95	3.3895	1.7522	118	3.3729	1.6835
22. The College personnel are easily accessible to students (e.g. easily available to see or to contact by phone, email, etc.)	99	3.3232	1.7428	120	3.9083	2.0904